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## A Single Case Study of Sophomore College Students' Self-Awareness and How it Relates to Teamwork at a Private College

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Concordia University–Portland

College of Education

Doctorate of Education Program

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A Single Case Study of Sophomore College Students' Self-Awareness and How it Relates to  
Teamwork at a Private College

Jeanne Thomas

Concordia University–Portland

College of Education

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the College of Education

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in

Teacher Leadership

Belle Booker-Zorigian, Ph.D., Faculty Chair Dissertation Committee

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Concordia University–Portland

2020

## **Abstract**

Teamwork is considered an essential 21st-century skill and is now included in most university curricula. Working in teams helps college students learn skills such as leadership and problem-solving, that can transfer to the workplace. Effective teams are defined as those with members who communicate well and whose members possess a high degree of self-awareness (SA). SA is the primary component of Goleman's framework of emotional intelligence (EI). A single case study was conducted at a private college in the United States to better understand how sophomore students described SA and how it relates to teamwork. The participants were sophomore students in their last two quarters of an associate's degree program. There were two participants for the pilot study and four participants in the case study and a maximum variation model of sampling was used. The methodology included participant diaries, interviews, and artifacts. The initial findings supported Goleman's assertion that SA was a gateway component that supported the development of other components of EI, including social awareness, self-management, and relationship management. Implications for practice may be the way in which college student SA relates to teamwork. Results suggest that participant SA helped them to manage their emotions and to therefore work better with their teammates.

*Keywords:* 21st century skills, teamwork, emotional intelligence, self-awareness, interviews, diaries

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## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

### **Introduction to the Problem**

Teamwork helps college students learn essential workplace skills such as problem solving and collaboration (Hansen, 2006). Teamwork skills are now included in most college curriculum (Jordan Lawrence, & Troth, 2012). For college sophomores, who are preparing for internships and the workplace, teamwork is of particular importance because it helps prepare them for the workplace. According to Betta (2016), teamwork skills are an essential part of career preparedness. Along with fundamental and personal management skills, Abas and Imam (2016) found that teamwork was a skill that made individuals more employable and correlated with employee performance. Those using teamwork rely on good communication, leadership, and problem-solving skills and encourage the development of these skills (Hansen, 2006). Teamwork develops self-efficacy, which can lead to more positive work experiences (Betta, 2016).

Ananiadou and Claro (2009), leaders of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), claimed teamwork and collaboration are 21st-century competencies that all millennials should be learning to obtain success in the global workplace. Teamwork is an essential workplace skill, and 80% of employers now use a team-based model (Chen, Donahue, & Klimoski, 2004; Hansen, 2006). Thus, leaders of more colleges have implemented team-based curricula (Jordan et al., 2012).

Mayer and Salovey define emotional intelligence (EI) as “the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (p. 31). However, EI is not an innate skill, but a set of functional and

adaptable skills that can be learned and improved over time (Brackett, Rivers, Reyes, & Salovey, 2012). This explains why teams that learn EI skills are more effective. For example, Luca and Tarricone (2001) concluded, “[A] team member’s EI played a pivotal role in determining the success and functionality of the team, and the quality of final product being developed” (p. 375). EI supports effective teamwork and should be included in college curriculum.

Most of the literature focuses on EI as a set of skills as it relates to teamwork rather than on any specific component of EI. Comeford, Kudrimoti, Leisey, and Mulcare (2014) concluded that the context of teamwork would represent the perfect setting for developing self-awareness (SA); however, this finding was the outcome of the study, not a component of the theoretical or conceptual framework. Eurich (2017) called SA the “meta-skill” of the 21st century, which when mastered, leads to success in life and work (p. 128). However, the research on SA as it relates to teamwork appears to be minimal. This apparent gap in the literature informed the study topic. A more extensive review of the literature is discussed in Chapter 2.

### **Background, Context and Conceptual Framework for the Problem**

The conceptual framework for the study is grounded in my experiences as a college teacher. The study is being conducted at private college in a major metropolitan city in the United States. I teach a variety of courses including, marketing, graphic design, and business writing at the study site. The study was informed by experiences in my marketing classes. In these classes, students are required to work in teams to complete a quarter-long research project. Quarters at the site are 10–11 weeks long. All classes at the college are 2 hours and 45 minutes in length and meet once a week.

The team project is started on the first day of class and students are broken up into teams. Each team conducts marketing research on a retail company, including demographic, geographic,

psychographic, and behavioral research. The class culminates with an oral presentation to class by each team. The class is split up into two parts, with a lecture at the beginning of class and then a lab held in the library for teams to work on their projects. While teaching these classes, I have observed that many students seem to struggle with teamwork. For example, some students stop coming to class or fail to do their part on a team project. From these observations I began to wonder what would help these students to work better on teams. There seemed to be a lack of awareness on the part of the students who did not show up. For example, they would turn their work in late and appear not to care that their teammates were doing more work than they were. The students who did show up to class and did their part on a project seemed to be compensating for these students. From these observations, I began to wonder how SA may relate to teamwork.

The student body at the study site is small with less than 300 students (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2018). Students at the site are put into a cohort based on their major. By the end of their first year, most students appear to have developed strong bonds or friendships with their peers. The small size of the student body along with a small teaching faculty lends itself to a highly supportive atmosphere.

The study is grounded in Goleman's (1995) framework of EI, which stated that SA was a gateway competency of EI that leads to self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. The framework was developed as a tool to improve performance in the workplace and is comprised of four components: (a) SA, (b) self-management, (c) social awareness, and (d) relationship management. Each component contains different competencies (see Figure 1). According to the framework, each component builds upon the previous one in a progressive manner, thereby increasing EI competence (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). The implications of the framework of EI for teamwork are significant. For example, Weisinger (1998) claimed that

communication was at the heart of effective teamwork. Communication is a competency listed under relationship management in the framework of EI (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). A more in-depth discussion of the conceptual framework follows in chapter 2.

### **Statement of the Problem**

The goal of the study is to better understand the experience of college students' SA as a component of EI and how it affects teamwork. The conceptual and theoretical framework is grounded in the researcher's experiences as a college teacher and from an extensive literature review. EI is set of skills that support team effectiveness (Boyatzis, 2008). A lack of EI can result in dysfunctional teamwork, specifically an inability to negotiate, collaborate, or communicate effectively with team members (Luca & Tarricone, 2001). Teamwork is a perfect context for students to learn essential workplace skills, such as leadership and problem-solving (Hansen, 2006). Therefore, college students should be learning EI skills that encourage effective teamwork.

### **Purpose of the Study**

This study is descriptive in nature, with the goal of better understanding how sophomore college students' SA relates to teamwork. Research on SA—as a competency of EI—and its relationship to teamwork, appeared to be lacking. I explored SA among a specific group of college students and how it influenced teamwork from the participants' perspectives, thereby addressing this gap in the literature. A single case study is being conducted to provide the participants' perspectives using online diaries, one-on-one interviews, and artifacts as data sources. The study's methodology is explained in greater detail in Chapter 3.



## **Research Questions**

The central questions of this study are as follows:

RQ1: How do sophomore students at a private college describe SA and how it relates to teamwork?

This question is answered with the help of two subquestions:

RQ2: How do sophomore students at a private college describe their knowledge and experience of SA?

RQ3: How do sophomore students at a private college describe their experience of working on a class team project?

## **Rationale, Relevance, and Significance of the Study**

The study is descriptive in nature, with the goal of better understanding how sophomore college students' SA relates to teamwork. A single case study is being conducted to provide the participant perspective using online diaries, one-on-one interviews, and the collection of artifacts. The study design is informed by the goal of the research, which was to better understand the experiences of sophomore college students' SA as it related to teamwork. Data collection tools are chosen that could help provide data from the participant perspective. These include solicited diaries, interviews, and artifacts. Diaries can provide a self-reflective perspective on the participant experience (Luca & Tarricone, 2001). A more detailed explanation of the study design and methodology is presented in Chapter 3.

Employers want workers who possess teamworking skills (Ananiadou & Claro, 2009). EI, as a set of skills, supports effective teamwork (Luca & Tarricone, 2001). Thus far, the literature has focused on the relationship between EI, considered as a whole, and how it affects teamwork, rather than on any specific competency of EI. Studies on SA as a primary competency

of EI regarding to teamwork appeared lacking. This gap in the literature informed the subject of the study. The current literature supported the inclusion of teamwork-based curricula as a component of college students' career preparation and demonstrated a positive relationship between EI and teamwork. I looked deeper into these claims by focusing on SA specifically, which could result in team-based curricula that would include self-reflective exercises.

### **Definition of Terms**

**Emotional intelligence.** EI is using one's emotions in concert with reason to problem-solve and make better decisions (Mayer & Salovey, 1990). EI positively correlates with social behaviors that support effective teamwork (Bloemker, Wang, Wilhite, Wyatt, & Young, 2012). EI is considered to be as important as intelligence quotient (Goleman, 1995).

**Self-awareness.** SA is the primary skill of EI and is defined as emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Eurich (2017) claims that SA is a vital skill to have in the 21st century. SA helps people be more successful in both in their professional and personal lives (Eurich, 2017).

**Sophomore.** Sophomore also means second in a series of events. For example, a sophomore college student is a student who is in their second year of college. The origin of the word sophomore comes from the Greek words sophos or wise and mōros which translates as foolish. (Merriam-Webster's collegiate dictionary, 1999).

**Teamwork.** A team is a group of people working towards a common goal that goes through stages of growth over time (Tuckman, 1965). Teamwork supports the development of skills required in the workplace, such as problem-solving and critical thinking (Hansen, 2006).

## **Assumptions, Delimitations, and Limitations**

### **Assumptions**

The following assumptions existed for the purposes of this study:

1. It is assumed that participants would provide valid information.
2. It is assumed that participants would be capable of using some form of writing software to write diary entries.
3. It is assumed that participants would provide information that was authentic and independent of the information of others.
4. It is assumed that participants, which comprised of students at a private college, would be unique in their ability to express themselves. A more extensive discussion of how creative people differ in expressive abilities is discussed in Chapter 2.

### **Delimitations**

The following delimitations exist for this study: (a) The sample is limited to sophomore students at a private college located in a large metropolitan city in the United States, and (b) the sample has to meet the criterion of comprising sophomore students who could demonstrate work on at least one team project at the site in the last calendar year.

### **Limitations**

There are certain limitations inherent in conducting this study. For example, the data sources—diaries, interviews, and artifacts—could provide the participants' perspective, but due to the personal nature of the content, the study results may not be generalizable. Another limitation is researcher bias stemming from the literature review, which consistently claimed a positive relationship between teamwork and EI, of which SA was the primary competency. To address any researcher bias and better ensure the accuracy of recordings, member-checking of

the interview transcriptions is being undertaken. The study methodology is discussed in more detail in Chapter 3.

### **Summary**

According to the literature, teamwork is a required skill in the 21st-century workplace. Teamwork is now included in most college curriculum (Bloemker et al., 2012). The goal of the study is to better understand the experience of college students' SA and how it relates to teamwork. A single descriptive study is being conducted using diaries, interviews, and artifacts as data collection tools to gain the participant perspective.

The study subject presented itself while teaching marketing courses. Over time, the question of how to help students be more effective team members arose. This experience combined with a review of the literature on EI and teamwork led to the study topic. The study aims to understand how self-awareness affects teamwork. The goals of case study research informed the design and methodology (Creswell, 2013). The study questions and data collection instruments are being used to better understand self-awareness from the participant perspective using online diaries, one-on-one interviews and artifacts. A maximum variation model of sampling is used to address the complexity and heterogeneity of the sample, and participation in the study is voluntary and confidential (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006; Creswell, 2014).

The theoretical framework for the study is grounded in Goleman's (2001) framework of EI, which identifies SA as the primary component that when mastered, can lead to better self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. This study seeks to better understand how the key component, SA, relates to teamwork. The research on EI as a whole as it relates to teamwork is vast; however, the research on SA as a component of the framework, appeared to be missing. The research intends to address this gap.

Chapter 1 provided an introduction to the study topic, including the research on EI and teamwork. The problem statement, purpose of the study, research objectives, and questions were discussed. Assumptions and limitations were included, along with the scope, delimitations, and the significance of the study. A review of the literature is provided in Chapter 2, as is the conceptual framework and the theoretical framework. Chapter 3 contains the study design and the reasoning for choosing such a design. Chapter 4 presents both the pilot study and case study procedures and the analysis of findings, while Chapter 5 includes the results, limitations, implications, and recommendations for future research.

## **Chapter 2: Literature Review**

### **Introduction**

According to Hansen (2006), over “80% of companies employ a team-based model” (p. 11). Hiring managers require prospective employees to possess strong teamworking skills (Chen et al., 2004). Working in teams helps college students learn skills, such as leadership and problem-solving, which can be transferred to the workplace (Hansen, 2006). Therefore, teamwork skills have been incorporated into many university courses, especially in business programs (Jordan et al., 2012).

The research suggests a correlation between EI and teamwork. For example, Luca and Tarricone (2001) determined that EI was the differentiating factor that led to more successful team production. Jordan and Troth (2004) also claim that EI is positively linked with effective team performance. Clarke (2010) specified the skills that EI influenced in teams to be “team identification, social engagement, communication, and conflict management” (p. 125). EI appears to be the essential set of skills for teams to master. According to the research, the skill that underlies and supports teamwork is SA. Effective teams are defined as those that communicate well and whose members possess a high degree of SA (Eurich, 2017; Weisinger, 1998). Therefore, SA, as a skill that supports effective teamwork, is a vital tool that college students should learn.

### **The Study Topic**

The study aims to better understand the experience of college students’ SA and how it relates to teamwork. A single case study was chosen because it employs an observational method, which seeks to understand a phenomenological occurrence (Creswell, 2013). Case study research can provide a deeper understanding of a problem or issue over a period of time;

however, findings will not be generalizable (Creswell, 2013). Case studies can provide a “profile of facts” however, which can inform future research (Zucker, 2009, p. 4).

The study uses participant diaries, interviews, and artifacts to gather the participant perspective. Diaries can provide an insider point of view to the importance or significance of research questions (Jacelon & Imperio, 2005). Participants are asked to reflect on their experiences of working in teams in an online diary (Luca & Tarricone, 2001). A diary guideline is provided to help keep the content focused on the research topic. Participants are interviewed after diary writing weeks to clarify content. Interview questions are open-ended and developed from an interview protocol, which is peer reviewed. Proof of teamwork in the form of a final team project document is part of the criteria for study participation.

The intent of this study is to gain insight into the experience of a group of participants’ SA. It is anticipated that the research methods would provide robust information from the participant perspective. Data analysis is inductive in nature through a repeated reading of data in an iterative process (Algozzine & Hancock, 2017).

## **The Context**

The literature suggests a positive correlation between EI and effective teamwork (Clarke, 2009; Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Druskat, Mount, & Sala, 2006; Jordan & Troth, 2004; Jordan, Lawrence, & Troth, 2012; Luca & Tarricone, 2001; Tucker & Yost, 2000). EI is defined as the way that people use their emotions in combination with their logic and reason to solve problems and to make sound decisions (Mayer & Salovey, 1990). EI has been found to positively correlate with behaviors considered to be supportive of effective teamwork such as, “pro-social tendencies,” or social intelligence (Bloemker et al., 2012, p. 3). Most of the current research focused on EI as it affects teamwork, while the research on SA as a specific component of EI as

it relates to teamwork appears to be minimal. A lack of EI can result in dysfunctional teamwork, specifically an inability to negotiate, collaborate, or communicate effectively with team members (Luca & Tarricone, 2001). There are different expressions of emotion that fall under the umbrella of EI that seem to promote effective teamwork. For example, the ability to manage others' emotions (called relationship management in EI) can aid overall communication effectiveness, leading to more effective teamwork (Troth, Jordan, & Lawrence, 2012).

Most of the research methodology relied on self-assessment as a measurement tool. Self-assessment is considered inherently flawed, since it is impossible to accurately assess ourselves without the objective feedback of others (Eurich, 2017). Mayer and Salovey (1990) have recommended that EI be measured by its parts rather than as a whole due to the complexity of the theory. It is for this reason that the research topic is focused only on SA—the first and primary component of EI (Goleman, 2001). The demand for workers with teamwork skills justifies the need for students to learn skills that encourage effective teamwork. This study may provide a road map for college professors showing how to encourage students' SA. Study findings may inform future teamwork-based curriculum at the university level.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Teamwork is considered an essential 21st-century skill that is now included in most university curriculum (Troth, Jordan, & Lawrence, 2012). Teams are defined as complex organisms that go through stages of growth and transformation (Kakabadse & Sheard, 2002). Working in teams helps college students learn skills, such as leadership and problem-solving, that can be transferred to the workplace (Hansen, 2006). EI predicts effectiveness in the workplace and supports the development of teamwork skills (Boyatzis, 2008). Therefore, college students should be developing EI skills in combination with teamwork-based coursework.



## **The Organization**

The literature review begins with an overview of teamwork as it relates to 21st-century workplace skills. Teams as a construct is then explored, with a particular focus on how teams evolve and become more effective. The positive relationship between EI and teamwork will then be explored, with a focus on how teams that possess EI are more effective. EI is a complex and broad theory; therefore, the literature review includes an explanation of the specific component of EI that helps teams to be effective: SA. The ways teams can develop SA are provided within a framework of peer feedback.

## **Conceptual Framework**

It has been observed that many of the students at the study site appear to struggle with teamwork. Inevitably, some form of conflict mediation is required on the part of the teacher, which can be a distraction from the content of the course. It appears that students lack an awareness of how their actions affect others. For example, when students do not show up to class or follow through with their work, the students who do come to class end up compensating by doing more of the work. This comes at a cost to everyone involved; the students who do not come to class may miss learning opportunities and the compensators become irritated towards them.

As a college professor, I teach marketing classes that require students to work together in teams to complete a marketing research plan over the course of one college quarter. Quarters at the study site school are 10–11 weeks long, depending on what day of the week the class takes place. The final team project is kicked off on the first day of class and culminates in a final team presentation on the last day of class. Classes are run in a workshop style, with minimal lecture and discussion time, and focus on team members working on their projects during the class.

The demographics of the classes are diverse. For example, I have students who are recent high school graduates and appear to be going through the transition from secondary to postsecondary education. I also have students who are pursuing their second college degrees, who seem to be more skilled at navigating the challenges and pressures of college-level work. This diversity presents a level of complexity of experience and education. It is for this reason that I assign the teams. For example, if I have a more experienced student, I will assign them to a team with new college students in the hopes that they will provide some level of leadership or academic confidence that new students may lack.

From peer reviews and from what I have observed, many students face a variety of challenges when working on team projects. For example, some students excel and are able to work with others well, and some students struggle to work with their peers. Many times, I have to meet with these teams to mediate conflicts or to help to focus and prioritize work. The most common scenario I encounter involves a student who is no longer willing to pull their weight on the project, seemingly deciding instead to coast through the quarter on the backs of their fellow teammates. The students who do want to do the work end up compensating for the students who are not fully participating. This comes at a cost to everyone involved. The non-participants miss out on learning valuable research and team skills, and the compensators become resentful. The end result is low team morale.

On the first day of class, students are broken up into teams of four to five students. The team project requires students to conduct marketing research on a retail company. The assignment requires teams to conduct demographic, geographic, psychographic, and behavioral research on their chosen company. The class culminates week nine with a written and final oral presentation of the team projects. As part of the marketing project assessment, I require team

members to formally rate their peers in a written peer assessment. The purpose of this one-time assessment is to give students an opportunity to reflect on the contributions of their peers. Students fill out a Likert-type questionnaire on the second-to-last week of the course, after everyone has their final presentations.

### **Effective Teamwork**

According to Decuyper, Dochy, and Van den Bossche (2010) team members learn together by creating a “dialogical space” where it is safe for them to engage in “co-construction” and where “constructive conflict” occurs (p. 111). Team members need to be able to cross their personal, team, and organizational boundaries by being willing to share information about themselves and their work (Decuyper et al., 2010). The sharing of this information is considered to be part of what makes a team setting more welcoming and therefore more productive. Team members can then build upon this information to construct and complete a task or project (Decuyper et al., 2010). Effective communication is achieved by through self-disclosure, assertiveness, dynamic listening, constructive criticism, and team communication (Weisinger, 1998). All of these skills support the development of EI (Weisinger, 1998).

The ability to take the perspective of others, in combination with a willingness to sacrifice personal agendas, can help teams achieve their goals (Ashkanasy & Jordan, 2006). Effective teams embrace conflict by listening to conflicting opinions or ideas, with the understanding that these differences will add depth and richness to the team (Decuyper et al., 2010). Acknowledging and accepting that there will be both times of conflict and times of peace helps teams be more effective as well (Decuyper et al., 2010). Many of these skills are found within the theory of EI.

Luca and Tarricone (2001) concluded that, “team member's EI played a pivotal role in determining the success and functionality of the team, and the quality of final product being developed” (p. 375). Jordan and Troth (2004) determined that communication effectiveness—an EI competency—contributed to enhanced perception of team cohesion, thereby lifting morale. A lack of EI in contrast can lead to dysfunctional teamwork.

### **Theoretical Framework**

The study is grounded in Goleman’s (2001) theoretical framework of EI. The framework is based on his original theory of EI from 1998 and was developed as a tool to help improve performance in the workplace. The framework breaks down EI into four quadrants: self, other, recognition, and regulation. These are further broken down into subgroups: SA, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management (see Figure 1). Goleman (2001) explains how the qualities of each component and how they are interdependent and complimentary of one another:

The framework illustrates, for example, that we cannot demonstrate the competencies of Trustworthiness and Conscientiousness without mastery of the fundamental ability of Self-Management or the competencies of Influence, Communication, Conflict Management, and so on without a handle on Managing Relationships.

	SELF Personal Competence	OTHER Social Competence
RECOGNITION	<p><b>Self-Awareness</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Emotional self-awareness</li> <li>• Accurate self-assessment</li> <li>• Self-confidence</li> </ul>	<p><b>Social Awareness</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Empathy</li> <li>• Service Orientation</li> <li>• Organizational awareness</li> </ul>
REGULATION	<p><b>Self-Management</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Emotional self-control</li> <li>• Trustworthiness</li> <li>• Conscientiousness</li> <li>• Adaptability</li> <li>• Achievement drive</li> <li>• Initiative</li> </ul>	<p><b>Relationship Management</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Developing others</li> <li>• Influence</li> <li>• Communication</li> <li>• Conflict management</li> <li>• Visionary leadership</li> <li>• Catalyzing change</li> <li>• Building bonds</li> <li>• Teamwork and collaboration</li> </ul>

*Figure 1. A Framework for Emotional Competencies. Adapted from The Emotionally Intelligence Workplace: How to Select for, Measure and Improve EI in Individuals, Groups, and Organizations (p. 20), by C. Cherniss and D. Goleman, 2001, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. Copyright 2001 by Jossey-Bass. Adapted with permission.*

EI points to the potential to learn the skills necessary to master these competencies (Goleman, 1995). Goleman (2001) defined an emotional competency within the framework as “a learned capability based on EI that results in outstanding performance at work” (pp. 595–596). Mastery of these competencies could increase people’s abilities to know themselves and to be successful when working with others (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Goleman’s (1995) theories

were based on Mayer and Salovey's (1990) theory of EI, which stated, "Thinking with emotions themselves, may be related to important social competencies and adaptive behavior" (p. 46).

Researchers have considered these competencies as essential for effective teamwork (Druskat, Mount, & Sala, 2006b).

### **The Neurological Basis of the Framework**

The framework of EI is rooted in the neurological mechanisms of cognition. EI expresses the link between one's higher and lower brain functions:

Emotional intelligence encompasses the behavioral manifestations of underlying neurological circuitry that primarily links the limbic areas for emotion, centering on the amygdala and its extended networks throughout the brain, to areas in the prefrontal frontal cortex, the brain's executive center (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001, pp. 627–629)

SA is the primary competency of EI and is how a person accurately assesses their emotions and behaviors, resulting in greater self-confidence (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). SA is "the affective analogue of meta-cognition" (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001, p. 633). SA acts as a type of mood barometer that can help us to better understand our own and others' feelings, leading to increased empathy (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Therefore, SA precedes self-management. SA provides vital feedback about what a person values and feels and how others may perceive that person. SA provides real-time feedback, which can be used to redirect behavior (Weisinger, 1998). Conversely, a lack of SA can lead to decisions that do not serve the person or others well, thereby making it more difficult to redirect individual and or group actions (Weisinger, 1998).

The next skill in the framework is self-management, which is informed by communication between the prefrontal cortex and the amygdala, which provides feedback in the

form of feelings (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). For example, good feelings arise when goals are achieved, and bad feelings when goals are not achieved. This feedback loop encourages achievement over failure (Davidson, Jackson, & Kalin, 2000). The loop also has positive implications for effective teamwork: “Team members who accurately assess their emotional abilities will contribute to their team being more effective than teams whose members have an inaccurate perception of their emotional abilities” (Druskat et al., 2006a, pp. 147–148). That is, the circuitry of self-management appears to be designed to build on our SA to ensure that we perform better in social contexts (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001).

Social awareness, the third competency of the framework, encompasses empathy, a service orientation, and organizational awareness. Social awareness builds on SA and self-management by engaging one’s “emotion-recognition cortical neurons” (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001, pp. 651–652). These emotionally aware neurons are connected to the amygdala, providing emotional feedback when people display empathy as well as awareness of the larger context in which they function (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). For example, a person with social awareness can step back and be objective rather than personalizing a situation.

Social awareness can lead to more positive, rewarding experiences. For example, when people volunteer for an organization aligned with their values, they may experience positive feelings as well as a greater sense of connection, making them want to continue volunteering (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). However, to maintain the positive feelings and experiences, mastery of the last competency of the framework, relationship management, is required (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001).

Cherniss and Goleman (2001) defined relationship management as the ability to tune in to and influence the emotions of other people, which is a competency of teamwork and

collaboration. Relationship management is where all the competencies come together in the framework. If people are not aware of and able to manage their emotional states and behaviors and if they cannot take an objective view of their situation, their relationships will suffer (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). In contrast, those who master this competency are more likely to be successful in their personal and professional relationships (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). The framework describes the skills that can lead to happier and more satisfying personal and professional lives.

### **The Laws of Emotions**

Emotions are expressions of neurological functions and may be governed by certain external factors (Frijda, 2002). According to Frijda (2007), when people feel emotions, they are “manifesting the workings of laws” (p. 350). The theory provides an explanation of how emotions may be elicited by certain events:

**The law of situational meaning.** “Emotions arise in response to the meaning structures of given situations; different emotions arise in response to different meaning structures” (Frijda, 2007, p. 350). Emotions are contextual and can be “elicited by particular types of events” (Frijda, 2007, p. 350).

**The law of concern.** “Emotions arise in response to events that are important to the individual's goals, motives, or concerns” (Frijda, 2007, p. 351). Emotional responses are highly personal and filtered through an individual's experiences, history, and values.

**The law of apparent reality.** “Emotions are elicited by events appraised as real, and their intensity corresponds to the degree to which this is the case” (Frijda, 2007, p. 352). One's perception of reality can affect their emotional response to that reality.



**The laws of change, habituation, and comparative feeling.** “Emotions are elicited not so much by the presence of favorable or unfavorable conditions, but by actual or expected changes in favorable or unfavorable conditions” (Frijda, 2007, p. 353). People experience emotions depending on their frame of reference, which changes over time through repeated exposure or through comparison.

**The law of hedonic asymmetry.** “We get used to joy over time but not pain. This is the human mind designed for survival not pleasure” (Frijda, 2007, p. 354). This law appears to explain why pleasure fades and discomfort is avoided.

**The law of conservation of emotional momentum.** “Emotional events retain their power to elicit emotions indefinitely, unless counteracted by repetitive exposures that permit extinction or habituation, to the extent that these are possible” (Frijda, 2007, p. 354). Emotions and memories are linked. Memories with a strong emotional charge remain forever.

**The law of closure.** “Emotions tend to be closed to judgments of relativity of impact and to the requirements of goals other than their own” (Frijda, 2007, p. 354). Closure refers to an “absoluteness of feeling” that is void of judgement (Frijda, 2007, p. 355).

**The law of care for consequence.** “Every emotional impulse elicits a secondary impulse that tends to modify it in view of its possible consequences” (Frijda, 2007, pp. 354–355). The secondary impulse suggests a SA of emotions and resulting desire to regulate or manage emotional states.

**The law of the lightest load and the greatest gain.** “Whenever a situation can be viewed in alternative ways, a tendency exists to view it in a way that minimizes negative emotional load” (Frijda, 2007, pp. 354–356). Trying to see a situation from a positive angle may be a survival mechanism. This is another form of emotional regulation or control.

According to Davidson, Jackson, and Kalin (2000) emotional plasticity is contextual; emotions are not fixed and can change depending on external circumstances. This is supported by Frijda's (2007) law of situational meaning, which claims emotions differ depending on the situation. Goleman (2001) claims that regulation of emotional states is a skill that relies on the competencies of SA: emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence. EI can be viewed from a neurological perspective as an expression of the frontal lobe and amygdala connecting to regulate or assess emotions (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). SA is the result of this connection and allows one to accurately assess their emotions and behavior to better regulate them (Goleman, 2001).

### **The Study Design**

The study design aims to better understand the SA of sophomore college students and how it relates to teamwork from the participant perspective. A single case study is used because it employs an observational format that looks at a phenomenological occurrence (Creswell, 2014). It is anticipated that the results will be descriptive in nature and provide a "profile of facts;" however, study findings may not be generalizable (Zucker, 2009, p. 4).

The research suggests a dual relationship between EI and teamwork. Clarke (2009) found that EI influenced skills associated with effective teamwork, specifically "team identification, social engagement, communication and conflict management" (p. 125). Jordan & Troth (2004) claim that EI is positively linked with effective team performance, and Luca & Tarricone (2001) determined that EI was the differentiating factor that led to more successful team production. EI appears to be an essential set of skills for teams to master.

Diaries, interviews, and artifacts are used for data collection to gain the participant perspective. Diaries have been shown to help students engage in critical self-reflection, allowing

them to better consider their experiences with their fellow teammates (Luca & Tarricone, 2001). Topical, open-ended interview questions aim to elicit rich data with prepared questions kept to a minimum to encourage a more in-depth, relaxed conversational atmosphere (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Artifacts are being collected to demonstrate team experience and the participant perspective. Participants are asked to provide proof of participation in a team project in the form of final graded team project prior to commencement of the study. Data collection includes researcher notes and interviews for transparency and to address bias. Analysis includes coding, looking for clusters of information, and mapping out major concepts, with an eye for emerging themes (Zucker, 2009). The intent of this study design is to gain insight into the experience of students' SA as it relates to teamwork. It is the hope that the methodology provides robust data from which to gather this information.

The literature review is conducted to examine the theoretical and empirical links between EI and teamwork. As a required skill in the workplace of the 21st century, teamwork is explored, and EI is briefly explained. The framework of EI developed by Goleman (1995) is explained. As the primary competency of the framework, SA is explored and supported by the work of Eurich (2017).

### **Teamwork as a Required Workplace Skill**

Workers in the 21st century need to possess relevant technical skills, be culturally literate, and able to work in teams with a variety of people both locally and virtually (Hansen, 2006). EI supports the development of these skills. "When you face global competition, you must develop not only technical competence, but also social and EI to achieve team synergy" (Covey, as cited in Weisinger, 1998, p. 7). According to Lirola (2016), collaborative teamwork and emotional competence—the way people deal with their emotions—are skills required in the

job market. Teamwork and EI appear to be essential skills that college students must learn to be successful in the 21st-century workplace (Chen et al., 2004).

Lirola (2016) defined emotional competence as the ability to manage difficult emotions in order to work better with others. Managing one's emotions in the language of EI is called emotional regulation (Luca & Tarricone, 2001). College students in an English language course were asked about the importance of teaching emotional as well as academic skills. Lirola (2016) concluded that 92% of the students believed that developing emotional skills is just as important as developing academic ones. Students in this study appeared to want to grow as young adults, not just academically, but emotionally as well (Lirola, 2016). These findings align with what current employers require: employees who are academically gifted and EI.

Teams are complex organisms that go through stages of growth and transformation. It is not enough to just put together a group of people to complete a task and call them a team; teams require time to become effective units (Kakabadse & Sheard, 2002). In a study by Kakabadse and Sheard (2002) of workers at an engineering company, it was found that teams traverse a developmental landscape over time, where they transform from a "loose group" to an effective team (Kakabadse & Sheard, 2002, p. 133). The theoretical framework for the study is informed by Tuckman's (1965) team development process model of storming, forming, norming, and performing; Kubler-Ross's (1969) transition curve, which is also used for the stages of grief; and Adair's (as cited in Kakabadse & Sheard, 2002) group needs model (task, individual, group, and environment). The study concluded that when teams are performing at a high-level, they accept the diversity and differences in their team, allowing them to stay focused on goal completion (Kakabadse & Sheard, 2002).

Research indicates that the success of teamwork also relies on effective communication. Weisinger (1998) proposes a progressive communication model for teams to use. The first stage of the model is called niceties. This is when people first meet and exchange factual information only (Weisinger, 1998). When people get to know one another more they begin to share thoughts and ideas, and finally they share feelings (Weisinger, 1998). Feelings are considered the riskiest level; however, this is where the most successful teamwork lies (Weisinger, 1998). Appropriate sharing helps to create bonds and a sense of trust within the group. Team communication can suffer when teammates are not on the same level (Weisinger, 1998). Weisinger (1998) recommends that teams identify at what stage they are at, to improve team communication awareness. Team members that share appropriately and understand what level their teammates are communicating at will be more successful (Weisinger, 1998).

According to the research, more companies are using teamwork as a workplace model (Hansen, 2006). Teams are defined as complex organisms that go through stages of transformation (Kakabadse & Sheard, 2002). Effective teams use effective communication by sharing appropriately and are capable of determining at the level of communication their teammates are using to be effective (Weisinger, 1998). Teamwork is a skill that can be learned and that takes time to develop. If it is a skill most employers are starting to use more, teamwork should be an essential element of a college education (Chen et al., 2004).

According to Covey (as cited in Weisinger, 1998), “To be competitive in the new global economy, U.S. executives must exercise empathy with partners, build win-win alliances, and seek synergistic relationships with suppliers and other stakeholders.” (p. 3). Empathy supports teamwork and is an EI competency (Goleman, 1998). Teamwork skills are essential to competition. Covey states:

Organizations must be effective at the personal and interpersonal levels. Just as important is to have the principles institutionalized in the mission, structure, and systems of the organization so that teamwork and synergy are highly valued by everyone in the culture. To create climates that foster teamwork while still rewarding individual initiative and maintaining individual responsibility, it is imperative that team performance objectives focus on desired results and identify guidelines, accountability, resources, and consequences. At the same time, people must be allowed the freedom to choose the methods for their own planning, budgeting, evaluation and compensation. (Covey as cited in Weisinger, 1998, p. 4)

According to Rajagopalan (as cited in Weisinger, 1996), emotionally intelligent employees become invaluable to an organization when they increase the EI of their co-workers. Group intelligence is defined as “the functional intelligence of a group of people working as a unit” (Williams & Sternberg, as cited in Weisinger, 1998, p. 3). The attributes of EI that support successful teams are:

- Empathy, or interpersonal understanding
- Cooperation and a unified effort
- Open communication, setting explicit norms and expectations, and confronting underperforming members
- A drive to improve, so that team members pay attention to performance feedback and seek to improve
- Self-awareness, in the form of evaluating strengths and weaknesses as a team
- Initiative and taking a proactive stance toward solving problems
- Self-confidence as a team

- Flexibility in completing tasks
- Organizational awareness, in terms of both assessing the need of other key groups in the company and being resourceful in using what the organization has to offer
- Building bonds to other teams (Goleman as cited in Weisinger, 1998, pp. 219–220)

### **The Relationship Between EI and Effective Teamwork**

EI refers to the ability to understand and recognize one's emotions and to then use this information in an advantageous manner (Brackett et al., 2004). EI is a functional and adaptable skill that can be developed to be more effective in the workplace (Brackett et al., 2011; Weisinger, 1998). Therefore, students can and should learn EI as part of their regular educational development to be more successful in their future careers (Bloemker et al., 2012).

EI is now being included in K–12 curricula at some schools. For example, the Yale Center for EI (2013) has developed a system called RULER, which refers to Recognizing, Understanding, Labeling, Expressing and Regulating emotions. RULER, which is based on Mayer & Salovey's (1990) original theory of EI, is a three-phase program for K–12 teachers to help their students better understand and articulate their emotions, with the goal of better decision-making.

There is a direct connection between critical thinking and the emotional stations of the brain, which may provide justification for teaching children EI skills (Frijda, 1998). EI in action links one's higher and lower brain functions, providing an "intersection" between emotion and cognition (Brackett et al., 2004, p. 84). Clarke (2009) supports this connection between critical thinking and EI:

Emotional awareness and emotional management were found to influence the three critical reflection processes: problem analysis, theorizing cause and effect relationships,

and action planning, as well as processes associated with team learning including team identification, social engagement, communication and conflict management. (p. 125)

When students are aware of and can manage their emotions, they are more capable of collaborating effectively with their peers, thereby leading to a more positive learning experience (Lirola, 2016). These are transferable skills that college graduates will need in the 21st-century workplace. Weisinger (1998) considered EI a key factor in improving working relationships. Researchers have positively correlated EI with student perceptions of team social cohesion, leading to a higher overall quality of relationships (Jordan & Troth, 2004). When team identity is high, problem-solving is also improved. EI helps teams to perform better and stay together. “EI abilities contribute to enhanced team processes that influence the quality of relationships in teams and, thus, student perceptions of team social cohesion” (Jordan et al., 2012, p. 415). A lack of EI may lead to dysfunctional teams, resulting in lower quality teamwork (Luca & Tarricone, 2001).

Luca & Tarricone (2001) state that the level of team members’ EI “played a pivotal role in determining the success and functionality of the team, and the quality of final product being developed” (p. 375). Low team member EI, in contrast, resulted in lower quality teamwork (Luca & Tarricone, 2001). The research also suggests a relationship between EI and problem-solving. Research suggests that there are “correlations between team problem solving and EI, as well as between team performance and EI” (Tucker & Yost, 2000, p. 4). EI teams appear to function better, overall. According to Druskat & Wolff (2001), “Groups are most creative when their members collaborate unreservedly. People stop holding back when there is mutual trust, rooted in emotionally intelligent interactions” (para. 25). Individual EI has a group analog, and it is just as critical to groups’ effectiveness (Druskat & Wolff, 2001). “When a member is not on the same



emotional wavelength as the rest, a team needs to be emotionally intelligent vis-à-vis that individual” (Druskat & Wolff, 2001, para. 11). Teams can develop greater EI and, in so doing, boost their overall performance. To do so, group members must be aware of the emotions of others in and outside of their group.

### **The Key Component of EI: SA**

Researchers have considered SA to be the primary competency of EI (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Eurich (2017) considers SA to be the most important skill in the 21st century. Eurich (2017) split SA into internal and external competencies, defining internal SA as being able to see oneself accurately and external SA as being able to assess how others see you accurately (Eurich, 2017). High internal SA benefits people in relation to their personal and professional choices, and high external SA leads to higher levels of trust (Eurich, 2017). The opposite may also be true. Some people may suffer in their life choices when they do not know how others perceive them. It is at the intersection between these two, where a more accurate picture of oneself can be found, which Eurich (2017) argues, can be a “tremendous force for good” (para. 2).

SA requires a desire to improve on the part of an individual; thus, it requires personal agency (Eurich, 2017). SA requires the will to improve; It is not a skill that just happens over time; people need to put some effort into it (Eurich, 2017). Eurich (2017) refers to the *will* to be self-aware to improve our relationships with ourselves and others. According to Eurich (2017), we all have blind spots, and “even the most dedicated students of SA among us risk missing key pieces of the puzzle” (para. 2). SA is always changing (Eurich, 2017). For example, one’s internal perceptions can sometimes contradict the external feedback one receives. Some people are so self-absorbed that they have no idea how they come across to others, and some people

choose to manage impressions rather than revealing their authentic selves. A more accurate picture of oneself can be found at the intersection of internal and external SA (Eurich, 2017).

Goleman (2001) defines SA as being able to accurately assess one's behaviors and emotions. Goleman (2001) considers accurate SA to be the gateway EI skill, which when mastered, can lead to other EI skills. Accuracy in self-assessment is not easily achieved because it requires the courage to look honestly at oneself. Eurich (2017) describes accurate self-assessment as not a surface observation, but rather a deeper exploration of one's concerns, values, passions, dreams, and comfort zones. SA appears to require effort, courage, a sense of bravery, and openness to external feedback.

### **Self-Awareness and Teamwork**

According to Druskat, Sala, and Mount (2006), SA has a positive impact on team effectiveness. Eurich (2017) states, "if we're not self-aware, it's almost impossible to master the skills that make us stronger team players, superior leaders, and better relationship builders—at work and beyond" (pp. 130–132). The first step to teams that are building SA is to create a safe space for team members to be honest and open (Eurich, 2017). In a research program at Google, it was found that the primary contributor to creating a safe team environment was a willingness on the part of individual team members to express vulnerability by admitting to mistakes (Eurich, 2017). An open and honest environment can help teams focus on achieving goals.

Eurich (2017) recommends teams engage in what she calls The Candor Challenge, where team members provide feedback to their peers on their strengths and weaknesses and what they can do to improve, which requires a team to have high degrees of safety and trust in place (p. 4151–4152). Feedback is the best method for increasing SA (Eurich, 2017). Eurich (2017) established ground rules for getting and giving feedback:

#### Rules for Getting Feedback:

1. No pushback or defensiveness; be curious and remember that perception is reality
2. Take notes and ask questions only for clarification
3. Be open-minded and assume good intentions
4. Thank your team members

#### Rules for Giving Feedback:

1. Avoid generalities
2. Focus on the behavior rather than the person
3. Do not give your interpretations of others' behavior—just the behavior itself
4. Provide examples

These ground rules for feedback provide a clear methodology for increasing both internal and external SA amongst team members. They also help to create a safe environment where team members can admit mistakes and seek the support and advice of their peers. Having rules for feedback also depersonalizes the process, possibly helping team members to see the benefit of receiving constructive feedback.

#### **Norms, EI, and Team Effectiveness**

Eurich (2017) recommends that teams create norms or agreed-upon behaviors that will encourage and sustain team effectiveness. A norm could be the establishment of best practices for giving and receiving feedback. This could help maintain a safe environment for team members to admit mistakes and seek the support and advice of their peers.

Individual EI has a group analog that is directly related to team effectiveness (Druskat & Wolff, 2001). Teams can develop greater EI and, in so doing, boost their overall performance. Creating group norms, such as interpersonal understanding and perspective-taking, can increase

group EI (Druskat & Wolff (2001). Druskat & Wolff (2001) state that “trust among members, a sense of group identity, and a sense of group efficacy” are essential to team effectiveness (para. 5). Norms help to define what kind of environment team members want. For example, a team could agree that team members must always show up on time for meetings to encourage accountability. A team that creates norms will be in control of its emotions as well.

Establishing norms and agreed upon behaviors can increase team effectiveness. Norms that build trust, group identity, and group efficacy are the key to making teams click. They allow an otherwise highly skilled and resourced team to fulfill its potential, and they can help a team faced with substantial challenges achieve surprising victories. (Druskat & Wolff, 2001, para. 50)

When team members see one another “grapple” with creating team norms, it increases trust and a sense of belonging to the group (Druskat & Wolff, 2001). Communication and a vulnerability born out of feelings of personal safety can create a culture of trust, which is at the heart of successful teamwork. Norms help to control group emotion by making emotions okay. Effective teams have normative behaviors that support and encourage EI. Druskat and Wolff (2001) state “norms for group self-awareness—of emotional states, strengths and weaknesses, modes of interaction, and task processes—are a critical part of group emotional intelligence that facilitates group efficacy (para. 21). Teams can increase their SA through both self-assessment and external feedback. Norms provide teams with the emotional shielding needed when conflicts and challenges arise.

### **The Creative Person, Self-Expression, and Self-Awareness**

The admission process at the study site involves submitting a portfolio of work that demonstrates the applicants’ skill level and a series of interviews. The assumption was made that

the sample is comprised of creative people unique in their abilities to express themselves. Thus, a review of the literature was conducted to better understand the characteristics of creative people as they relate to the study sample.

According to the literature, creative people are unique thinkers who are curious, self-confident, open to criticism and questions, and more capable than others of expressing themselves (Demir Kaçan & Sahin, 2015). Psychoanalytic theorists of creativity have defined a creative person as someone who overcomes conflict, reconciles fantasy with reality, or creates structure out of chaos (Houtz et al., 2005). For example, the study sample are students at a private college, and the job of designers and marketers (two career paths for students from the college) is to solve problems in a creative way. Creative people tend to engage in introspection and reflection, which Houtz et al. (2005) suggests can result in greater awareness of their abilities. The study design uses diaries to encourage self-reflection, which aligns with this claim. Chandra, Glette, and Lewis (2016) state that SA supports self-expression in the form of feedback, which improves interactions with others while supporting time management and goal achievement. An individual or a group can express SA in the form of collective awareness, which may have implications for teamwork (Chandra et al., 2016). Participants spoke about how peer feedback increased their SA. The methodology is discussed in more detail in Chapter 3.

Kornilova and Pavlova (2013) conducted a study to look at how creativity, tolerance for uncertainty (TU), and EI related to each other. Kornilova and Pavlova (2013) wanted to know if EI was a “prerequisite for choice and decision making under uncertainty mediated by the use of emotional information” (Kornilova & Pavlova, 2013, pp. 37–38). TU was defined as being able to function in uncertain situations. Kornilova and Pavlova (2013) concluded a positive correlation between a tolerance for uncertainty and EI and complicated “patterns of the

relationships among EI, TU and creativity” (Kornilova & Pavlova, 2013, pp. 43). Kornilova and Pavlova (2013) stated that EI does relate to TU, and in one of the three study samples, “higher creativity, EI, and TU were predictive of using emotional information in making decisions in uncertain situations that involve communication” (Kornilova & Pavlova, 2013, pp. 44).

Creativity appears to benefit from EI, and emotional regulation and seems to encourage tolerance of the unexpected, possibly mitigating the discomforting experience of when unexpected events occur.

### **Review of the Methodological Issues**

According to Creswell (2014), qualitative research aims to understand the meaning of the human experience at the group or individual level. Because the human experience is complex, this research style is considered “inductive” (Creswell, 2014, p. 4). This complexity makes qualitative research appropriate for seeking to better understand a particular phenomenon or case. For example, a qualitative case study is a great way to gain a better understanding of how a team functions. The focus of this section will be on qualitative research as it applies to the research topic as well as the limitations inherent in certain qualitative methods. For example, in an ethnographic study, there is a risk of losing objectivity and the findings of a single case study would not be generalizable. However, case study findings can provide a deeper understanding of a problem or issue that may inform future research.

The literature reviewed is a mixture of both quantitative and qualitative research designs. All of the quantitative studies used some sort of measurement tool to determine either team effectiveness or level of EI among team members. Jordan and Ashkanasy (2006) and Troth, Jordan, and Lawrence (2012) both used the *Workgroup EI Profile* (WEIP) to measure team effectiveness, while Elfenbein (2006) used the *Diagnostic Analysis of Nonverbal Accuracy*

(DANVA), to measure accuracy in recognizing emotions as a prediction of teammate behaviors. Though these tools provided hard data, they did not provide insights into team dynamics or the experience of the participants. The qualitative literature looked at how participants used their EI m

A phenomenological study aims to understand the common experience of a particular group of study participants (Creswell, 2013, p. 76). Clarke (2009) conducted a phenomenological study to better understand how Masters of Business Administration students used EI to aid teamwork. Clarke selected this approach for its ability “to offer insights into the internal processes by which social action is perceived ‘in situ’” (p. 125). Participants in the study were asked to write in a diary each week about their experience of working in teams. Diaries can provide an internal view of a participants’ experience and are considered ecologically valid because they provide insight over a specified period of time and context (Clarke, 2009). Diary data was coded for themes that supported a definition of EI abilities and was verified by having students add their own inferences to study findings (Clarke, 2009). There are limitations inherent in diaries as a data collection tool. For example, researchers cannot force participants to write in diaries, nor can they control what they write about. In an attempt to mitigate this issue, participants were provided a diary-writing guideline to help keep entries focused on the research questions (Clarke, 2009).

Kakabadse and Sheard (2002) conducted an ethnographic study looking at how groups transform from loose groups to high-functioning teams. An ethnographic study seeks to discover theory from data without any preconceived notions of what the end result will be (Kakabadse & Sheard, 2002). Data was collected from interviewing and shadowing participants, and from notes taken while attending meetings and workshops. The issues inherent with an ethnographic study

are gaining the trust of study participants in order to “gain entry” into the group, which takes time, while also maintaining researcher objectivity (Kakabadse & Sheard, 2002, p. 140). Sheard and Kakabadse (2002) participated in team meetings and met with leaders during the day, but were not embedded all 24 hours, which helped to mitigate some of the risk of going native.

Luca and Tarricone (2001) investigated not only how EI helps teams to be more successful, but also how EI affects a teams’ final product. A single case study method with online journals, questionnaires, and focus groups was used for data collection. The limitation of a single case study is that it does not provide the holistic analysis that can be achieved when studying multiple cases (Creswell, 2013). A single case study can provide insight into a particular area of research, but is not considered generalizable or reliable (Creswell, 2013).

All of the studies reviewed looked at the relationship between EI as a whole and teamwork; however, none of them focused on the primary component of EI, SA, as defined by Goleman’s (2001) framework of EI. It is for this reason that I propose a study that aims to better understand SA—as the primary component of EI—as it relates to teamwork. Based on the preliminary review of the literature, and the subject of interest, a case study methodology is used. According to Creswell (2013), case study research seeks an “in-depth understanding” of a problem or issue within a defined time period (p. 98). Data collection tools are online diaries, semi-structured interviews, and artifacts to provide the participant perspective into how SA relates to teamwork.

### **Synthesis of Research Findings**

The research suggests that teamwork is a skill that college students should master to be successful in the 21st-century workplace. EI is the essential skill that leads to effective teamwork by improving problem solving, decision-making, and communication skills (Yost & Tucker,



2000; Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Druskat & Mount, 2006; Weisinger, 1998; Hansen, 2006). EI also helps to improve relationships. When people understand their own emotions and are able to manage them, communication improves, as does the overall nature of their relationships (Jordan, Lawrence, & Troth, 2012). EI also improves critical thinking, and specifically, “analysis, theorising cause and effect relationships, and action planning, as well as processes associated with team learning including team identification, social engagement, communication and conflict management” (Clarke, 2009, p. 125). EI also plays a role in the formation and development of teams.

EI has been shown to be an essential skill that supports teams in the process of transforming from a “loose group” of taskmasters to a highly effective team (Kakabadse & Sheard, 2002, p. 133). Once a team is considered to be functioning effectively, EI continues to help produce better results (Luca & Tarricone, 2001). EI is a skill that all teams can learn to become more successful. “The most effective teams are emotionally intelligent ones—and any team can attain EI” (Druskat & Wolff, 2001, para. 55). The research suggests that EI is a skill that all teams should learn.

The majority of the studies used Mayer and Salovey’s (1997) theory of EI as part of their theoretical framework. Some researchers combined Mayer and Salovey’s (1997) theory with Goleman’s (1998) for a broader definition. However, only one study used Goleman’s (1998) original EI framework. The framework breaks EI into components that build upon one another: SA, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. In 2001 Goleman (2001) refined the framework to just four competencies a few years later, with SA remaining the primary competency that when mastered leads to the other competencies: social-awareness, self-management, and relationship management.

## **Critique of Previous Research**

The primary themes of the literature review centered around teamwork as a required workplace skill, and the positive effect EI has on teamwork. The research was a mixture of quantitative and qualitative designs. The quantitative studies used tools that provided empirical data but did not provide insights into team dynamics or the experience of the participants. However, all of the studies, regardless of methodology, demonstrated a positive relationship between EI and teamwork, although none of the research focused on a specific component of EI.

Most of the studies were grounded in Mayer & Salovey's (1997) theory of EI, and some also used Goleman's (1998) theory for a more robust definition. Only one study was grounded Goleman's (1998) EI framework exclusively. Goleman's (1998) original framework of EI breaks EI into five components: SA, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. The framework was refined in 2001 down to just four components that build upon one another in a progressive fashion: SA, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. According to the framework, mastery of the components improves leads to more successful working relationships. SA—the first component of the framework—is a gateway skill that leads to the other competencies in the framework, making it the most important to master first.

There appears to be a gap in the literature on SA as a component of EI as it relates to teamwork. The literature reviewed focused only on EI as a whole in relation to teamwork, not on a specific component of EI. In two studies team-based learning was demonstrated to increase participants' SA, though SA was not part of the conceptual framework or addressed as a component of EI, but rather an unexpected outcome in the findings (Comeford et al., 2014; Druskat et al., 2006a). None of the research used Goleman's (2001) revised EI framework or

designed a study to look specifically at SA as its primary component. Therefore, there appears to be a need for more research focusing on SA as a component of EI as it relates to teamwork.

### **Summary**

According to the literature, teamwork is a required skill in the 21st-century workplace that all college students should be learning (Bloemker et al., 2012). Teamwork requires effective communication as well as the ability to work well with others—skills that are supported by EI (Weisinger, 1998). EI is the ability to recognize the meaning of emotions and to act upon this information in an advantageous manner (Bloemker et al., 2012). Therefore, college students should learn skills that support effective teamwork, such as EI.

EI is a fairly recent theory, and the research appears to reflect this. Most of the research was grounded in either Mayer and Salovey (1997) or Goleman's (1995) theories of EI or a combination of the two. Brackett et al. (2004), however, warned researchers that assessing EI as a whole would be near to impossible because the theory is broad and encompasses so many aspects of human emotion, intelligence, and behavior. The research does not appear to have heeded this warning, with the majority of the research focused solely on EI as an umbrella term. Goleman's (2001) framework breaks EI into specific components, with SA as the primary component that should be mastered before the other components. The framework is based on the neurological mechanisms of cognition. From a neurological perspective, EI is the expression of the linkage between our higher and lower brain functions. SA, according to the revised framework, is the most important competency to master because it leads to the other competencies in the framework. However, there appears to be clear a gap in the literature on SA as a component of EI. Eurich (2017) supports this assertion and suggests that SA is the “meta-skill” of the 21st century, which leads to a more satisfying and successful personal and

professional life. However, the lack of research on SA as a component of EI as it relates to teamwork appears to warrant further research.

The primary methodological issues in the literature were limitations inherent to qualitative research. For example, in ethnographic studies, there is the risk of losing objectivity; and in case studies, results are not replicable or considered generalizable. However, qualitative research can provide a deeper, more nuanced understanding of a problem or issue from the participant perspective. All of the studies demonstrated a positive relationship between EI and teamwork. Choosing a study design required looking at the goal of the research. The goal of the study is to better understand the experience of college students' SA and how it relates to teamwork. Therefore a case study methodology is used to help describe the participant perspective. Case study research seeks an "in-depth understanding" of a problem or issue within a defined time period (Creswell, 2013, p. 98). The study may help to fill the gap in the literature, possibly informing future research.

According to the literature, most companies use a teamwork workplace model (Hansen, 2006). Effective teamwork relies on effective communication, which EI supports (Weisinger, 1998). SA is considered to be the key component of EI, which has been shown to have a positive impact on team effectiveness (Druskat et al., 2006; Goleman & Cherniss, 2001). Teams can increase member SA by establishing norms of behavior that support team effectiveness (Eurich, 2017). According the literature, EI contributes to effective teamwork, which is a required skill in the 21st-century workplace. EI is defined as the way in which people use their emotions in combination with logic and reason to solve problems and to make sound decisions (Mayer & Salovey, 1990). In Goleman's (2001) framework, EI is broken down into four different components, with SA being the key or primary gateway component that enables mastery of the

other EI competencies. The literature on the relationship between SA and teamwork appears to be limited, with most studies focused on EI as a whole rather than a single component. This lack of research on SA informed the study subject.

### **Chapter 3: Methodology**

According to Creswell (2013), research goals should inform the design and methodology of a study. Yin (2014) states that the methodology should function as a bridge connecting the dots from the initial questions to the conclusions. Case studies are a form of qualitative research that seeks a comprehensive understanding of a problem or issue within a defined time period (Creswell, 2013). Case studies employ the constructivist point of view that truth is relative; it is the participants' perspective of a phenomenon or experience that is paramount (Creswell, 2014).

Stake (1995) defined an intrinsic case study as one that presents itself naturally to a researcher. For example, the subject of this dissertation arose while I taught team-based marketing classes over the past few years. An intrinsic case study researcher would aim to understand better a “particular individual, event, situation, program, or activity” (Algozzine & Hancock, 2017, p. 39). Having observed students struggling to work in teams, certain questions arose regarding what could help students be more effective team members.

Researchers have suggested that there is a positive relationship between EI and teamwork; however, research focusing on the primary competency of EI—identified by Goleman (1995) as SA—and teamwork seems to be lacking. Therefore, more research focusing on how a single competency of EI affects teamwork may be required. This gap in the research helped to inform the design of this research study. The case study was descriptive in nature and sought to better understand how SA related to teamwork from the participants' perspective.

#### **Review of the Methodological Issues**

According to Creswell (2014), qualitative researchers aim to understand the meaning of human experience at the group or individual level. Qualitative research is considered inductive in nature due to the complexities of the human experience (Creswell, 2014). This complexity makes

qualitative research an appropriate method to use to better understand a particular phenomenon or case. For example, a qualitative case study is a good way to gain a better understanding of how participants perceive working in teams. Therefore, the focus of this section is on qualitative research as it applies to this topic and on the limitations inherent in certain qualitative methods. For example, in an ethnographic study, there was a risk of losing objectivity, and the findings of a single case study would not be generalizable. However, case-study findings provided a deeper understanding of a problem or issue that could inform future research.

The literature reviewed included a mixture of both quantitative and qualitative research designs. All the quantitative researchers used some sort of measurement tool to determine either team effectiveness or the level of EI among team members. For instance, Ashkanasy and Jordan (2006) and Jordan et al. (2012) used the Workgroup EI Profile to measure team effectiveness, while Elfenbein (as cited in Druskat et al., 2006a) used the Diagnostic Analysis of Nonverbal Accuracy to measure accuracy in recognizing emotions as a prediction of teammates' behaviors. Though these tools provided hard data, they did not provide insights into team dynamics or into the experiences of the participants. The qualitative literature showed how participants used their EI skills to work in teams.

A phenomenological researcher aims to understand the common experience of a particular group of study participants (Creswell, 2013). Clarke (2009) conducted a phenomenological study to understand better how Master of Business Administration students used EI to aid teamwork. Clarke selected this approach for its ability "to offer insights into the internal processes by which social action is perceived 'in situ'" (p. 125). Diaries can provide participants' point of view and can provide "ecological validity" because they are in a "natural environment" (Clarke, 2009, p. 129). There are limitations inherent in diaries as a data source.

For example, researchers cannot force participants to write in diaries, nor can they control what they write about (Clarke, 2009). To mitigate this issue, participants received a diary question guideline to keep their entries focused on the research questions.

Kakabadse and Sheard (2002) conducted an ethnographic study examining how groups transform from loose groups to highly functioning teams. An ethnographic researcher seeks to discover theory from data without any preconceived notions of the end result (Kakabadse & Sheard, 2002). Data were collected by interviewing participants, shadowing participants, and taking notes while attending meetings and workshops. The issues inherent in an ethnographic study included gaining the trust of study participants to “gain entry” into the group, which would take time, while maintaining researcher objectivity (Kakabadse & Sheard, 2002). Kakabadse and Sheard (2002) participated in team meetings and met with leaders during the day, but they were not embedded 24 hours a day, which helped to mitigate some of the risk of becoming overly invested. Luca and Tarricone (2001) investigated not only how EI would help teams be more successful, but also how it would influence a team’s final product. A single case study method with online journals, questionnaires, and focus groups was used for data collection. The limitations of a single case study are that it does not provide the holistic analysis that can be achieved when multiple cases are studied (Creswell, 2013). A single case study can provide insight into a particular area of research, but is not considered generalizable or reliable (Creswell, 2013).

All the studies reviewed examined the relationship between EI as a whole and teamwork, but none focused on the primary competency of EI and SA as defined by Goleman (1995) in his framework for EI. Thus, I chose to undertake this study to better understand how SA relates to teamwork. Based on a preliminary review of the literature and the subject of interest, a case



study methodology was used. According to Creswell (2013), case study research seeks an “in-depth understanding” (p. 98) of a problem or issue within a defined time period. The data sources were online diaries, semistructured interviews, and artifacts to provide the participants’ perspectives into how SA influenced teamwork.

### **The Study Topic and Design**

This goal of the study is to better understand college students’ SA and how it related to teamwork. Case-study researchers can provide an in-depth understanding of a problem or issue over a period (Creswell, 2013). Case study researchers can also provide a portrayal or description of a case, which can inform future research (Zucker, 2009). A single case study was selected because it employs an observational method to understand a phenomenological occurrence (see Creswell, 2013).

Choosing a study design requires considering the goal of the research. The goal of the case study was to understand better the experiences of sophomore college students’ SA as it relates to teamwork. Data collection tools were selected to provide data from the participants’ perspective and includes solicited diaries, recorded interviews, and the collection of artifacts. Diaries encourage critical self-reflection, thereby allowing participants to consider their experiences with their teammates (Luca & Tarricone, 2001). Diaries can also provide an insider point of view about the significance of research questions (Jacelon & Imperio, 2005). Data collection procedures and analysis are discussed in the next section.

### **Data Collection Procedures and Analysis**

Permission to conduct the study was sought from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Concordia University–Portland and from the study site campus director. After receiving permission to begin the study, I designed flyers to recruit volunteers for the pilot study. These

were posted on campus event boards. Students who volunteered received a consent form with an confidential letter written at the top. For example, the letter “A” was written at the top of the first consent form, which became the confidential identifier for the first participant going forward. Researcher contact information was listed on the consent form for any questions or concerns. Volunteers were asked to sign the consent form when I was not present to mitigate the risk of coercion. For example, if a volunteer approached me about signing up for the study, I gave them a consent form, and I asked them to read it thoroughly, and then to return it signed to me if they wished to participate. Signed consent forms were copied with one copy given to the participant, and one copy stored in a locked file cabinet, with researcher only access.

After they had signed a consent form, volunteers were considered to be a participant in the study. An informal one-on-one meeting was arranged with each participant to review study procedures, exchange contact information, and answer any questions or concerns they might have. The first step was for participants was to email a portable document format (PDF) version of a team project they had completed in the previous calendar year (2018). Once this document had been received, participants were emailed the diary question guidelines (see Appendix A). I scheduled one-on-one interviews once diary entries were received, read, and analyzed. Data analysis was inductive, sought quadrants of information, and mapped out major concepts for emerging themes (see Zucker, 2009). A more detailed explanation of data procedures and analysis for both the pilot study and the official case study is presented in Chapter 4.

### **Research Questions**

The central question of the study was:

RQ1: How do sophomore students at a private college describe SA and how it relates to teamwork?

Subquestions that align with the data gathering tools—diaries, interviews, and artifacts—were:

RQ2: How do sophomore students at a private college describe their knowledge and experience of SA?

RQ3: How do sophomore students at a private college describe their experience of working on a class team project?

### **Purpose of the Study**

The goal of the study was to better understand the experience of college students' SA and how it relates to teamwork. The theoretical framework for the study was based on Goleman's (2001) framework of EI, in which SA is considered the primary component that when mastered encourages self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. According to Eurich (2017) SA is the "meta-skill" of the 21st century—the most important skill to develop for success in life and work (p. 128). It was the intent of the study to provide insight into how this gateway skill relates to teamwork.

The research on SA and teamwork, however, appears to be minimal. The majority of the research found appears to focus solely on EI as a whole, as it relates to teamwork, not on any specific components of EI, such as SA, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. While one study did focus on SA but with a reverse focus and claimed that a team context is the perfect setting for developing SA, it was not focused on how SA related to teamwork (Comeford, Kudrimoti, Leisey & Mulcare, 2014). However, this study did demonstrate a dual-relationship between SA and teamwork. The apparent gap in the research helped to inform the study topic.

## **Research Sampling Method**

According to Creswell (2013), the goal of qualitative research should be to “elucidate the particular” rather than provide evidence that can be generalized (p. 157). Case study research is based on a constructivist paradigm, which claims that truth is relative and is dependent on one’s perspective or social construction of reality (Yin, 2014). Criterion sampling in combination with maximum variation sampling is used to help select a group of participants that can best help to answer the research questions. A sample that has experience working in teams could lend credibility to the study as well (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). The anticipated sample size was to be no more than 10 participants. The sample aligns with study goals, which were informed by the experiences of the researcher at the site. The goal of the study was to better understand the perspective of a variety of students, therefore maximum variation sampling is used. Maximum variation is a model of sampling that addresses the complexity and heterogeneity of a sample (Creswell, 2014; Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). Maximum variation reveals diversity at the outset so that study findings more accurately reflect the sample’s differences (Creswell, 2014).

The site demographics are diverse, and the participant sample reflected this. The most recent college demographic data from National Center for Educational Statistics (2018) show a racial mix of 1.4% American Indian or Alaska Native, 16.5% Asian, 6.9% Black or African American, 21.1% Hispanic/Latino, 2.8% Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, 36.2% White or Caucasian, 5.1% two or more races, 5.5% race/ethnicity unknown, and 4.6% non-resident alien (see Table 1).

The student body at the site is small, with an overwhelming majority of female students. (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2018). The sample reflected these demographics. Based on characteristics that supported the study’s goals, a criterion for participant selection was

developed that included: sophomore students who had worked on at least one team project at the site in the previous calendar year (2018).

An informational meeting about the study goals, data collection methods, anticipated length, and methods of protecting participant confidentiality and instructions for filling out consent forms was held with each student who was interested in participating. Once they had signed a consent form, students were asked to email a project they had worked on the last year as a form of artifact. Artifacts were assigned an confidential participant letter listed on their consent form and stored on a password protected computer with researcher only access. Once artifacts were received and stored, participants were emailed diary guidelines. After diary content was analyzed, interviews were booked.

### **Instrumentation**

According to Yin (2014) collecting multiple sources of data is one of the strengths of case study research. Using different sources of data helps to form a more accurate picture, ensuring triangulation (Yin, 2014). Data collection instruments and analysis procedures provided robust data from the participant perspective.

**Artifacts.** Artifacts refer to objects found at a study site that can aid in answering research questions (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Artifacts can provide a different participant perspective of how they view the meaning or importance of a research topic (Merriam, 2016). The choice of artifacts for this study supports the goal of the research and the research questions by providing an example of a team project from each participant. Participants were asked to provide a digital example of a team project they participated in prior to receiving diary guidelines.

**Diaries.** Solicited diaries can provide an insider point of view. Participants received a diary guideline that included five questions that were informed by Eurich's (2017) "seven pillars of insight" (p. 428). Questions were designed to encourage participants' internal and external SA and as a precursor to the interview sessions that followed (see Appendix A). Participants were asked to use the guideline to direct their content towards the goals of the study (Jacelon & Imperio, 2005). The guideline was informed by the research questions and theoretical framework.

The sequence of data collection was designed in a progressive manner to ensure that information is fresh in the minds of participants. For example, participants were asked to write in their diaries addressing questions and using a guideline. A minimum of at least one to two pages of writing per question was requested. Participants were not given a specific date for posting their final diaries due to their busy class schedules. However, an email was sent a week later to check on their progress. One received, diaries were downloaded, assigned participant letters, analyzed, and coded with initial categories noted.

**Semistructured interviews.** Following the completion of diary writing and analysis, participants were asked to schedule a one-on-one, semistructured interview session. Interview questions were written so as to encourage a flexible and relaxed discussion (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Topical, open-ended interview questions were constructed to elicit rich data but were kept to a minimum, with only five structured questions, to encourage a more in-depth, relaxed, conversational atmosphere (see Appendix B). To maintain a non-confrontational or intimidating atmosphere, the style of the interviews was responsive and friendly (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Interviews began with introductory questions and then progressed to more direct questions using a redirect prompt in between each main question to let

participants know where the interview was headed (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). For example, each question was followed up by a clarifying and probing question to ensure the accuracy of responses was recorded.

Sessions were taped, transcribed, and analyzed for emerging themes using both the iPhone Voice Memos application and a password-protected USB with researcher only access. Member checking of transcripts was used to ensure accuracy of data prior to analysis. (Clayton & Thorne, 2000). Analysis was inductive in nature through a repeated reading of the data following an iterative process of coding for emerging themes (Algozzine & Hancock, 2017). A pilot study was conducted to test the study procedures, interview questions, setting, data collection instruments, and analysis procedures (Yin, 2016). Pilot study participants met the same criteria for case study participants but did not participant in the final study.

### **Data Collection and Analysis**

Study participants were asked to write in the diaries using whichever type of word processor they wished on the days of their choosing over the course of a few school weeks. They emailed the document to my faculty email address once completed. A check-in email was sent to all participants a week after the guidelines were provided to check on whether they had any questions or concerns. Once content had been received, it was downloaded to a locked folder on my computer and backed up on a password-protected flash drive. Diaries were printed out and analyzed manually. I highlighted keywords and phrases and made notes in the margins of the document. These keywords and phrases were captured using Microsoft Word and organized in a table according to categories that reflected diary questions. After analyzing data, I scheduled an interview with each participant.

It was anticipated that diary analysis would take a significant amount of time to transcribe and code. However, the proximity of diary writing with the interview sessions was essential so that diary content was fresh in the minds of participants. Therefore interviews were held no more than two weeks after diary analysis. Analysis was inductive in nature through repeated reading of data in an iterative process, coding, organizing categories and looking emerging themes (Algozzine & Hancock, 2017).

One-on-one interviews were held in person at the study site in a private conference room so that the participants' body language and facial expressions could be captured in the session notes (see Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). Rooms were booked via email with the assistant to the campus director. Once a session was finished, the recording devices were turned off, and the recording was saved with the confidential participant letter. This recording was then listened to in its entirety and then uploaded to a locked folder on my password-protected computer. The recordings were then uploaded to Rev, an online transcription service, with the instruction that recordings should be transcribed verbatim. The transcription process was quick, and the documents were ready for download within 24 hours. Upon receipt of the transcripts, recorded interviews were deleted to ensure data security and participant privacy (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Brinkmann and Kvale (2015) recommend member-checking of data. Once transcripts were ready, Participants were sent their session transcripts to review for accuracy. They were asked to read the transcript thoroughly and to them email me with any comments or changes. None of the participants had any changes to their transcripts.

### **Identification of Attributes**

The study site is unique and benefits from its location in a major metropolitan city in the United States by its close proximity to both large and small businesses in a variety of industries.



Students benefit directly in the form of academic and paid internships, or part-time jobs during school and after the graduate. This helps to prepare them for their future careers. Faculty partner with industry leaders as well to infuse course curriculum with real-world projects.

The student body at the school is small, which encourages both peer and faculty collaboration. For example, students at the site progress through their degree programs in a cohort, resulting in strong relationships with their peers. Many faculty members collaborate with one another outside of their particular major they teach in. Classes are observed quarterly by faculty peers, and lesson plans are developed with the assistance of a curriculum advisor.

### **Data Analysis Procedures**

The data analysis procedures used were inductive in nature and involved seeking categories and themes that emerged naturally. Diary analysis was conducted with the goal of looking for patterns of data in a process of comparison and coding (see Stake, 1995). Codes were placed in categories in a process of recoding referred to as pattern coding (see Saldaña, 2009). To prepare for this second round of coding, code mapping was used. Code mapping involved first listing all the codes, and then creating the initial categories; these categories were put into a table corresponding with the participant letter and refined to eliminate any redundancies (Saldaña, 2009). Diary content was individual in nature; therefore, the analysis focused on representation rather than themes.

Interview analysis focused on finding meaning through coding, condensation of meaning, and interpretation (see Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). Interview recordings were listened in their entirety once with general impressions noted in a notebook. The recording was then listened to a second time listening for themes that emerged (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). Brinkmann and Kvale (2015) recommend keeping a work journal to capture thoughts and ideas that come to

mind during analysis. Merriam & Tisdal (2016) refers to a research journal as an “audit trail,” which captures in detail the research process (p. 252). Initial themes were restated in basic terms and questioned in terms of how they related to the research questions, and formulated into descriptive statements (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015).

Transcription refers to the act of translating one narrative medium to another (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). The transcription process aimed to capture verbatim the oral narrative of recorded interviews without the meaning being lost during the transcription process. Capturing exact words and pauses or silences that occur during the interview may help to better understand the participants’ perspective and help to ensure validity; therefore, the transcription service was directed to capture a precise word-for-word account of the recordings (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Transcripts were emailed to participants to check for accuracy. Once approved by participants, they were printed out for manual analysis.

## **Validation**

Robust data was gathered from multiple sources to address issues of validation. Analysis used rich, thick descriptions to provide detailed explanations and to enhance the transferability of data (see Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Participants were asked to review their transcripts to enhance accuracy (see Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The interview questions were written in a conversational tone and were open-ended (Castillo-Montoya, 2016; Yin, 2014). An interview protocol was designed that encouraged inquiry-driven sessions that aligned with the goal of the study (Castillo-Montoya, 2016). The interviews were tested in a pilot study to determine how well the data from the pilot sessions answered the research questions.

Castillo-Montoya (2016) suggest using an interview protocol for validation and reliability of questions. Protocols encourage inquiry-driven sessions that align with the goal of the study

(Castillo-Montoya, 2016). To ensure alignment of questions, a matrix can be created that maps interview questions against research questions (Castillo-Montoya, 2016). Interview questions were written in a conversational tone and were open-ended (Castillo-Montoya, 2016; Yin, 2014). A script that included all interview questions including follow-up and concluding questions was used to help guide the interview sessions (Castillo-Montoya, 2016).

### **Expected Findings**

According to Bruno and Dell'Aversana (2017) self-reflection increases metacognition. None of the study participants had ever participated in a study before, so the experience of participating in their first study may have affected them in multiple ways. For instance, they may have a better understanding of how a case study is done and what the process is. They may have become more SA by answering diary prompts that were designed to encourage SA. They may also have a better understanding about how their SA relates to teamwork after participating in the interview sessions. Their engagement in the case study process might have an effect on how they work with their peers on team projects in the future.

Findings may provide insight into whether SA, considered the primary EI skill in Goleman's (2001) framework, supports effective teamwork. It was also anticipated that the listening and analytical skills of both the researcher and participant may have increased or improved by participating in the interview process. The interviews were discussion-oriented and guided by a series of questions that encouraged both listening and responding from both the participant and researcher. Biases and prejudices about effective teamwork for both the researcher and participants may have been exposed and challenged as well during these discussions. Findings may provide insight into how students feel working on team project, which may inform team-based curriculum at the site going forward.

## **Ethical Issues**

Ethical issues inherent in qualitative research are informed consent, site approvals, sharing the purpose and findings of the study with participants and the site community, as well as the role of the researcher (Creswell, 2013). To address issues of consent and privacy, participation was voluntarily and confidential, with letters assigned to each participant. A composite story of a case is a description of individual events (Creswell, 2013). Current researcher bias stems from a review of the literature, which claims a positive relationship between teamwork and EI, and from researcher experience of teaching classes where students work in teams at the site.

A research journal including thoughts, observations, and disclosure of bias and prejudice, as well as ensuring that participants were not current students of the researcher, was used to address these issues. Data collection tools aimed to gather the participant perspective. However, diaries, interviews, and artifacts are considered inherently biased due to the personal nature of the content; therefore, study results are not be considered generalizable.

## **Summary**

The study subject presented itself while teaching marketing courses each quarter. Over time, the question of how to help students be more effective team members arose. This experience, combined with a review of the literature on EI and teamwork, informed the study topic. The study sought to better understand how SA relates to teamwork. The goals of case study research should inform the design and methodology (Creswell, 2013). The study questions and data collection instruments were recommended to better understand SA from the participants' perspective using online diaries, one-on-one interviews, and artifacts. A maximum variation model of sampling was suggested to address the complexity and heterogeneity of the

sample, and participation in the study was voluntary and confidential (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006; Creswell, 2014).

According to the research, there is a reciprocal relationship between EI and teamwork. SA, as a component of EI, and teamwork appear to have a reciprocal, bidirectional relationship. It was anticipated that the study would provide insight into whether SA supports effective teamwork. Participants may also see an increase in self-efficacy, self-confidence, and responsibility for team success. Conducting a first study may improve listening, analytical, and critical thinking skills for both the researcher and participants. The insight gained from learning more about teamwork from the students' perspective may change future team-based curriculum at the site.

## **Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Results**

### **Introduction**

According to Van Teijlingen, Edwin, Hundley, and Vanora (2002), pilot studies fulfill a range of important functions, including providing valuable insights for future researchers and increasing the probability of a successful outcome through the testing of certain data collection instruments. The purpose of the pilot study was to test the effectiveness of interview questions at capturing data that answers the primary research question: *How do sophomore students at a private college describe SA and how it relates to teamwork*. The recruitment of student participants was tested, as well as the procedures for recording, transcribing, coding, and analyzing interview data. Data collection procedures are described in detail, including participant demographics and data analysis.

### **Description of the Sample**

Demographic data helps to determine whether a sample is representative of the population being studied. The most recent data compiled by the National Center for Educational Statistics (2018) shows a somewhat diverse student body (see Table 1). The sample reflected the student body which had a majority of female students (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2018). Both participants in the pilot study were female and were from the United States.

Table 1

*Study Site Demographic*

Race	% of Population
Hispanic/Latino	21.1
Black or African American	6.9
White or Caucasian	36.2
American Indian or Alaska Native	1.4
Asian	16.5
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander	2.8
Two or more races	5.1
Race/Ethnicity unknown	5.5
Non-resident Alien	4.6

**Pilot Study Procedures**

The pilot study followed the interview methodology discussed in Chapter 3. Following IRB approval, flyers advertising the pilot study were posted on bulletin boards at the study site. One day later, two student participants were recruited who met the study criteria: second-year students who could demonstrate work on a team project within the last calendar year (2018). Both participants contacted the researcher via text to say they would like to volunteer, after which they were given a consent form with an alphabetic letter written on it to ensure participant confidentiality. For example, the first participant received a form with the words “Participant A” written on the top, which is how they were identified going forward.

Signed consent forms were then copied, and one copy was given to the participant and one was filed in a secure, locked file cabinet, with researcher only access. Both participants then emailed the researcher a PDF of a team project they worked on in the last calendar year, which served as an artifact. PDFs were assigned the corresponding participant letter and downloaded to a password-protected computer. Following receipt of the artifacts, interview sessions were scheduled via text message and a private meeting room at the study site was booked. Each

meeting was booked for two hours to allow for set-up and enough time to have a relaxed conversation. This proved to be more than enough time, with each interview lasting approximately 30 minutes.

### **Pilot Study Interviews**

The first interview was held with Participant A in the late afternoon. The second interview with Participant B was held in the late morning the following day. Participants were met at the reception area at the study site and escorted to the interview room, where they were offered water or a snack.

Each session began with some casual conversation about how participants were doing with school, along with a brief overview of how the interviews would proceed. To ensure each interview would be successfully recorded, two recording devices were used, including a voice memo app on a password-protected iPhone and a password protected USB recording device. Participants were asked if they had any questions about these devices and if they were ready for the session to begin. After answering any questions participants had, the session began by turning on both USB device and the voice memo app. Sessions began with a verbal date and time stamp, along with a brief introduction of the researcher, the study purpose, and the participant's confidential identifier. An interview script printed and used as a guide to keep the sessions focused and on track. Interview questions were written in a sequential fashion, beginning with a set of introductory questions, transition or redirect questions, and a final concluding set of questions. Subquestions were designed to help probe deeper into each subject and were repeated after each main question (see Appendix C). Notes were written in a researcher journal to capture phrases or words that stood out.



At the completion of the interview, participants were thanked for their participation and both recording devices were turned off. Both participants stayed for a few more minutes after each interview to chat, which helped to close each session in a casual, comfortable manner. Once the devices were turned off, no more data was collected. Interview recordings were copied to a password-protected laptop and backed up to an encrypted USB device, which was stored in a secure lock box with researcher only access.

Recordings from the voice memo app were chosen over the ones from the USB recording device due to better recording quality. The entire interview recording was listened to prior to transcription to ensure the whole interview was captured. Recordings were then uploaded to an online transcription service called Rev. This service was chosen due to the low per-page rate and fast turn-around time. Rev was directed to deliver verbatim transcripts to provide detailed documentation of the interview sessions. Both transcripts were ready by the end of the same day of the recorded interview session and were downloaded onto a password-protected laptop. Both interview recordings were deleted from both the iPhone app and the computer after the transcripts were printed to ensure privacy.

### **Pilot Study Analysis**

Interview analysis focused on finding meaning through coding, condensation of meaning, and interpretation (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). Analysis was inductive in nature through a repeated reading of the data in an iterative process, looking for emerging themes (Algozzine & Hancock, 2017). Each transcript was printed out and was approximately 20 pages long. Transcripts were read through once, looking for key words or phrases that stood out. A second round of coding was attempted using the online coding program ATLAS.ti, however the program

seemed more suited for imposing pre-determined codes. Manual coding was chosen, which proved to be a more immediate, and efficient process for emergent codes.

Initial codes were listed in a spreadsheet program to identify emerging categories in a process defined as code mapping (Saldaña, 2014). This process helped to quickly eliminate redundancies, allowing those that most closely aligned with the research question to emerge. Categories were then listed and incorporated into general themes (see Table 2). A category that emerged but did not align directly with the research question was *Catalysts for Self-Awareness*. It was included in the analysis, as it provided robust data about the types of life events and contexts that may lead to higher levels of SA.

Table 2

*Pilot Study Data Analysis*

Codes	Categories	Thematic Statements
Self-talk Physical awareness Unbiased perspective Managing emotions	Definition of SA	SA can emerge through self-talk and physical awareness. It can encourage objectivity and help with managing one's emotions.
Other awareness	How SA relates to teamwork	SA relates to teamwork by increasing other awareness, which is supported by Goleman's (1995) framework of EI.
Major life transitions Navigating new social terrain Peer critiques	Catalysts for SA	Major transitions in life such as navigating new social terrain at school may be catalysts for increased SA.

Both participants appeared to be engaged and interested in the process, smiling and laughing at times throughout the interview. The format, number, and sequence of questions appeared to work well, with each question flowing logically to the next. The limited number of

questions allowed for a good amount of time to dig deeper into subjects, ensuring a more accurate picture of the participants' points of view.

### **Pilot Study Findings**

The pilot study findings supported Goleman's (1995) framework for EI, which claims that SA is the gateway component that can lead to other competencies: self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. For example, Participant A defined SA as a tool that helps to manage emotions and to remain neutral when working with others. SA had helped her to be "the Switzerland of humans," when working on a team project. She made an analogy between Switzerland's neutral stance in international conflicts and her ability to remain neutral during interpersonal conflicts. However, Participant A clarified that being neutral did not mean giving away one's power, but rather trying to see another person's point of view to work better with them. Participant B described her SA as a physical awareness—at times, an alert—that triggered her mental awareness, which aligned with Goleman's (2001) description of SA as an expression of the link between our higher and lower brains. The amygdala is located in the lower brain and is the body's physical alarm system, whereas awareness or cognition is situated in the frontal lobe or higher brain (Goleman, 2001). SA is an expression of these two parts connecting (Goleman, 2001). Participant B described how her SA started physically as an alarm, which then informed her higher brain, making her more aware.

Catalysts for increased SA was an emergent category that was not part of the focus of the research; however, the data received in this regard were deemed significant in providing further insight into each participant's experience of SA. Participant A spoke about how coming to college and moving to a major metropolitan area to attend college had increased her SA. She stated that "having to fend for myself socially" had made her more self-aware: "I feel like I've

become obviously more self-aware since I moved out of my parents' house, just moving here and having the most dramatic life change ever." Navigating this social terrain as a newly independent young adult appeared to be a catalyst for increasing her SA. Participant A believed that weekly critiques in the classroom also encouraged her to become more objective about her work and the work of her peers, thereby increasing her SA. According to Breslin, Nicol, and Thomson (2014), peer feedback "is a reciprocal process" that assists in the development of "evaluative judgment" (p. 102). Critiques provided a catalyst for greater SA for Participant A. Participant B described her SA as a physical awareness that triggers her mental awareness. Goleman (2001) states that SA is an expression of the linkage between our higher and lower brains. The amygdala in the lower brain is the body's physical alarm system, whereas awareness or cognition lies in the frontal lobe or higher brain (Goleman, 2001).

Eurich (2017) defined SA as "the ability to see ourselves clearly—to understand who we are, how others see us, and how we fit into the world around us" (p. 96). The pilot study participants were asked to reflect on an experience or situation where they believed SA might have helped them. Participant A shared that she believed that SA might have helped her to leave a job she hated much sooner. SA might have encouraged her to take positive action for her own benefit. Participant B believed that SA might have helped her to address more effectively an episode of what she described as "irrational" anxiety prior to a team presentation. Goleman (2001) described emotional SA as "knowing what one feels" (p. 20) in order to manage one's emotions better. Participant B believed that SA could have helped her to manage her emotions better.

Participants were asked to share their experiences of working on team projects at the study site. Both struggled with where to begin because they were both in the middle of team

projects at the time of the interviews; thus, they needed time to think about this question.

Students at the site are put into cohorts, and many classes are team project-oriented; therefore, they work with the same people on different assignments throughout the school year. Sometimes, students have a class with students from other majors and will work with someone they did not know. Working with the same people appeared to help Participant A. She had learned that there was a difference between being friends with someone and being their teammate. For example, she might be friends with a classmate, but that did not mean that she wanted to work with that person on a team project. She had learned who she would and would not want to work with on a team from almost two years of experience of working on team projects, many with cohort peers, and some with students from other majors. Team projects were graded as a whole in some classes at the study site, which meant there was one grade for the whole team, not for each individual student. Participant A believed that this model was inherently flawed, and therefore unfair. For example, if a teammate did not do their share of the work, she believed the person should not receive the same grade as the rest of the team.

Participant B shared her experiences of working on team projects by discussing the size of team:

Every time it's been more than three, there has always been one person, and sometimes it's not the same person, sometimes it's one person one day and one person the next, but usually it's a singular person who doesn't really do the task that they're supposed to do and doesn't really communicate very well and just kind of stands aside and doesn't do the work.

Participant B believed that the number of team members had an effect on the functioning of a team. She felt that having a smaller team might mitigate the risk of members not doing their share of the work

The last question asked participants how they felt SA related to working on class team projects. Working on team projects increased Participant A's other awareness. For example, SA helped Participant A—she believed—to be more flexible: “As a teammate, I think SA makes me incredibly flexible.” Flexibility helped her to work better with her teammates. Participant B shared that working on team projects made her aware that she needed to be more assertive. She wanted to find a balance between making things work with others and asserting her own needs.

### **Case Study Methodology, Analysis, and Procedures**

The case study followed the methodology discussed in Chapter 3 and was informed by the primary research question: How do sophomore students at a private college describe SA and how it relates to teamwork? Following the completion of the pilot study, flyers for the case study were posted on bulletin boards at the study site. After the flyer was posted, an email was sent to the faculty at the site, requesting a few minutes at the beginning or end of their classes to explain the study in person and to answer any questions students may have had. A study flyer was attached to the email, along with a brief explanation of the purpose of the study.

Recruitment of participants for the case study took longer than the pilot study. This may have been due to the fact that the end of the pilot study was close to the end of the fall quarter and the beginning of the winter holiday break. Therefore, students were busy finishing final projects and preparing to leave campus for two weeks. It was determined that visiting classrooms to share info about the study would be necessary to expedite the recruitment process, which was cleared in advance by the dissertation committee chair.

Four classes were visited, and at each class, an explanation of the study purpose and methodology was provided, with an emphasis on the participant's right to withdraw. It was also emphasized that participation was completely voluntary and that there was no reward for participation or consequence for not doing so. Consent forms were left for them to review and fill out if they wished to participate. Each form had an alphabetic letter written on it to ensure participant confidentiality. For example, the words "Participant C" was written on the top of one of the forms, which would serve as the confidential identifier for that student participant going forward. Students were told that consent forms should be read and signed outside the presence of the researcher to prevent any perception of coercion.

Upon receipt of a consent form, a copy was made and given to the participant. Participants were then asked to email the researcher a PDF of a team project completed in the previous calendar year (2018) as an artifact. PDFs were downloaded into a folder on a password-protected computer. Participants were then emailed a diary guidelines and questions document and were asked to review them and let the researcher know if there were any questions (see Appendix A).

The first two participants turned their consent forms on the same day as the second classroom visit. However, because it was the week before the Winter/Holiday break (Fall Quarter) they were told they would not be sent the diary guidelines until after the break so they could have a rest. After the break, another two participants turned in consent forms, bringing the total participants for the case study to 4. Participants were asked to take their time answering the questions and to email their documents when finished. A check-in email was sent a week later see if there were any questions. There were no questions at that point. After another couple of weeks, another check-in was sent with a suggested turn-in date. The intention was to make sure

the data was collected in time to be analyzed and to conduct the interview session before the end of the winter quarter. All of the participants were second-year students in their last quarter of an associate's degree program. The first participant sent their diary doc in a few weeks after the start of the winter quarter, with the rest coming in the next two weeks after that.

Completed diaries were then downloaded to a password-protected computer and printed out for manual analysis. Key words or phrases were highlighted and written down in the margins of the document and then put into a table and organized by category: SA or Teamwork. After analyzing diaries, one-on-one interviews were scheduled with participants.

### **Description of the Sample**

The majority of the students at the study site were female and the case study participants reflected this ("NCES, National Center," 2016). Participants were under the age of 22 and came from the United States and Europe. The racial makeup of the sample was reflective of the site demographics (see Table 1).

**Diary analysis.** The diary questions were informed by Eurich's (2017) "seven pillars of insight" (p. 428), which are designed to improve SA. There were six questions in the diary guidelines, with the first three categorized under SA and the remaining three under teamwork (see Appendix A). The goal of the analysis was to describe the participants' viewpoints. Diary content was individual in nature; therefore, the analysis focused on representation rather than themes. However, where a similar answer was found, it was discussed. A summary description of the participants' responses follows.

**Summary of the diary findings.** Participants wrote at least one page per question. Participants' strengths were described as being enthusiastic, logical, adaptable, organized, and being a leader. Participant weaknesses were described as being indecisive, fearful, or needing to



be in control. One participant viewed weaknesses as an opportunity to change. Diary answers were varied, with only one area of commonality found: Three of the four participants stated that taking care of their health, both mental and physical, was a passion. Other passions included family, fashion, career aspirations, routines and rituals, the environment, sustainability, and animals. Participants were asked about a defining moment in their lives. This question appeared the most personal for some participants. For example, two participants stated that moving to another country or another state was transformative.

**Presentation of diary data and results.** The first question asked participants to reflect on their strengths and weaknesses. Participant C shared that her strengths included her enthusiasm, eagerness, and being engaged with her peers. She believed she was empathetic and was considered trustworthy because she was open and willing to discuss difficult topics, which she explained had resulted in close friendships. Participant C was dedicated, especially with regard to her schoolwork and future career goals and considered herself highly adaptable to new social settings. Participant C believed her biggest weakness was indecisiveness due to her analytical nature and desire to consider all options in a situation. She wrote that she could be “too cautious” and could “second-guess” herself at times. A weakness she did not feel good about was a quickness to judge people based on first impressions, a quality she hoped to change.

Participant D believed that strengths and weaknesses were contextual—strengths could be weaknesses and vice versa, depending on the situation. For example, she always worked hard to achieve a good result that would benefit her at school; however, if things did not go as planned, at times, she tended to take it personally. She considered her tendency to be logical as a strength regarding math and a weakness when considering another person’s point of view. She

possessed an “unwavering positivity” however, that seemed to mitigate her fears. She shared an insight about the complexity of our emotional states:

I think it’s ironic that this is one of my strengths because of the weakness I have, but every time something bad happens, I always think that having a positive outlook would make the situation easier and also would possibly bring a positive outcome.

Participant D’s logic helped her to cognitively reframe a situation so that fear would not take over.

Participant E considered her strengths to be adaptability, organizational skills, and time management skills. She was good at, as she described it, “making order out of chaos.”

Participant E preferred to view weaknesses as opportunities. She was a planner, which could lead to anxiety at times if a plan was interrupted. However, she wanted to learn how to trust in the inevitability of change or to accept that, in her words, “everything happens for a reason, and I will ultimately be okay.”

The second question asked participants to write about what some of their passions were. Three participants—C, D, and E—were passionate about taking care of their physical or mental health, or both. Participant F was passionate about the environment, sustainability, animals, and spreading the word about protecting them.

The third question asked participants to describe a defining moment in their lives. Participant C shared that moving to the United States was challenging and transformational. She stated the following:

I have learned the hard way to realize that you cannot expect to have a dream come true without making sacrifices and having patience. I have learned that I can be strong, independent, and in charge of my own future.

A defining moment in Participant D's life involved starting a health club on campus while she was still in high school, which had a transformative effect on her self-concept at a young age, and she realized how much she could achieve. Being accepted into a college that aligned with her passions was a defining moment as well. Participant E's defining moment was moving to a major metropolitan city in the United States at a young age. She described the impact of this decision: "Had I not made the difficult decision to essentially switch lives, I would not be the woman I am today, capable of making challenging decisions with such grace." A defining moment for Participant F was meeting a buyer for the store where she was working at. This encounter was a validating experience that confirmed her passions: "This experience shaped me into the person I am today because it taught me how to go for something and never quit because you never know what the outcome will be." She credited this meeting for helping her to choose a college that aligned with these passions.

The fourth question asked participants to describe their ideal environments, in particular what kind of environment they believed would best support their performance. Participant C's preferred environment was collaborative, social, and team-based—one in which members contributed equally. She preferred a comfortable room temperature, natural lighting, and music. Participant D worked best in a fast, challenging, and somewhat chaotic environment. She shared an awareness of what she needed cognitively to be productive: "I have a short attention span sometimes, and with a slow environment I am not receiving the brain stimulation I need to be creative." She also liked recognition for good work, clear leadership, and consistent, clear communication. Participant E preferred working alone in a public space such as a library or café where, as she described it, "There is a general consensus about the noise level." To minimize distractions, she preferred white walls with a natural source of light, such as sunlight, and

minimal décor. She believed in aromatherapy and its effect on stimulation; if possible, she liked having some incense burning or an essential oil in a diffuser. Participant F's preferred environment was organized and clean with music playing to keep her motivated. Having healthy snacks available was important as well to help her stay focused and on task.

The fourth diary question asked participants to reflect on how their peers had reacted to them over the past week. Participant C wrote about providing feedback to her peers in a business class: "I got the impression that my peers were appreciative of the feedback and responded with nods, smiles, and comments that showed their appreciation of the feedback." Participant C shared another instance from the same class where she had to collaborate with a peer to generate a business idea. At first, they disagreed, but were eventually able to find common ground. Participant C shared that she was aware that she could be stubborn. However, in this instance, she found a way around it, which helped her to collaborate more effectively.

Participant D shared that she had recently received her dream job offer. When this news was shared with her peers at school, she observed that they reacted differently than her peers outside school. The difference in reactions appeared contextual. School peer responses ranged from excited to negative, which she attributed to their possibly perceiving her news as bragging. She thought that some of her peers at school might be envious or jealous of her for getting such a good job offer. In contrast, her peers outside of school showed genuine happiness and support for her, which might have been because they did not have the same career goals.

Participant E prefaced her answer by sharing that she usually took responsibility and picked up the slack if necessary when working on a team project. However, she shared an experience of when she had a business trip and had to miss presenting a team project. Her teammate was supportive and understanding of her need to work, but Participant E still felt bad

and nervous about not being present. She provided notes to support her partner during the presentation but was cognizant of not being in control of the presentation of information on which she had done research. Her diligence in providing notes appeared to keep things positive between her and her teammate, and they got a good grade.

Participant F shared that she was positive and constructive when sharing her ideas in an integrated communications class: “I felt that my energy was positive and constructive instead of negative and criticizing. With this attitude, I felt my colleagues reciprocate that energy and we were able to come up with a plethora of ideas.” She observed the effect that this positive attitude had outside school with her friends, who appeared, she believed, to be more open with her.

According to Hyers (2018), “The diary can harness the power of immediate personal witness” (p. 27). The diary entries were thorough and detailed, which resulted in robust data for analysis. Participants demonstrated an awareness of their strengths, weaknesses, passions, defining moments, preferred work environments, and how their behaviors affected their peers. Their answers appeared honest and open, showing a certain amount of courage, boldness, and trust on their part.

The diary writing sessions served as preparation for the interviews that followed. The interview questions sought to further help answer the primary research question: How do sophomore students at a private college describe SA and how it relates to teamwork? (see Appendix C.) A detailed description of the interview procedures and analysis follows in the next section.

### **Case Study Interview Procedures**

The interview procedures were informed by the pilot study, including the length of time the meeting room was reserved, questions asked, data collection devices, and analysis methods.

A small meeting room was reserved a few days in advance for one hour. Similar to the pilot study, each session lasted approximately 30 minutes. Interviews sessions were scheduled via email following the analysis of participant diaries. I met participants at the reception area of the study site and escorted them to the meeting room. Once in the room, I offered participants water or a snack.

Each session began by asking participants how their day was going and how their classes were that quarter to encourage a comfortable and casual atmosphere. Participants were provided a brief overview of how the session would proceed, including information about the two devices to be used: a voice memo app on a password protected iPhone and a password protected USB recording device. After answering any questions and confirming that the participants were ready to start, I turned on both devices. Session recordings began with a verbal date and time stamp, a brief introduction of the researcher and participant using their confidential identifier, and the purpose of the study.

Interview questions were printed out and used as a script to ensure no questions were forgotten. Questions were organized in sequential manner beginning with a set of introductory questions, moving to redirect questions, and a final set of concluding questions. Each main question had three subquestions to help probe deeper and clarify participant answers (see Appendix C). Session notes were taken in a researcher journal to capture phrases that stood out, as well as participants' body language. However, these notes were kept to a minimum (only one page) to keep the focus on the participants as well as to help create a comfortable environment.

At the completion of each interview, participants were thanked for their participation and both recording devices were turned off. Some participants stayed afterwards to chat for a few minutes, depending on their schedule. Once participants exited the room, recordings were copied

to a password-protected laptop and backed up to an encrypted USB device, which was stored in a secure locked box, with researcher only access. To ensure that each interview was captured in its entirety, the entire recordings were listened to twice and then uploaded them to an online transcription service called Rev. The service was given instructions to provide verbatim transcripts. Recordings were deleted immediately after they were transcribed. They were then downloaded to a password-protected laptop and printed for manual coding purposes. Prior to coding, transcripts were emailed to each participant to ensure accuracy. Participants were asked to read their transcript through, checking for any errors or misrepresentations and to send any changes to me. All four participants confirmed by email that the transcripts recorded their answers accurately.

### **Case Study Interview Analysis**

This section contains the case study analysis. Table 1 shows the case study interview statements. Interview analysis was inductive and looked for themes that emerged from the data (Algozzine & Hancock, 2017). I printed transcripts and looked through them for initial key words or phrases. I then read through them again to refine these words and phrases into codes. Codes were then listed and put into categories in a process called code mapping (Saldaña, 2014). These were incorporated into thematic statements, which were edited down to one or two sentences (see Table 3).

Table 3

*Case Study Interview Data Analysis*

Codes	Categories	Thematic statements
Self-knowledge Paying attention Perspective-taking Open to feedback Being present	Definition of SA	SA is described as self-knowledge, paying attention, and being present and open to feedback from others.
Develops over time Collaboration Brainstorming Asking questions Time management Self-reflection Being strategic Being prepared	Description of participants' SA	SA develops over time. Collaboration, asking questions, brainstorming, time management, and self-reflection increase SA.
Other awareness Self-perception Adaptability Flexibility Acceptance Preparedness Planning Strategizing Communication Role clarification Exchanging ideas Building trust	How SA relates to teamwork	SA encourages acceptance of differences, flexibility, exchanging ideas, self-perception, role clarification, communication, trust-building, other awareness, and being prepared for the unexpected.

**Findings**

Findings appear to support Goleman's (2001) framework of EI, which states that SA is the key competency of EI, which can lead to the three other competencies in the framework: self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. The following participant responses describe how SA relates to teamwork.

Participant C was the first participant scheduled for an interview. She arrived early and appeared excited to start. She leaned forward and made consistent eye contact throughout the interview session. The first question asked participants to define SA. Participant C defined SA as



paying attention and being able to see yourself objectively. For example, receiving feedback from her teammates when working on a project with them helped her to be more objective about herself. The second question asked participants to speak about their own SA. Participant C shared that her SA seems to grow over time, and that both teamwork and time management have helped to encourage this growth. The fifth interview question asked participants how they felt SA affects working on a team project. Participant C felt that SA made her more aware of how she works, what her role is on a team, how she communicates, and how she is perceived by her teammates. This awareness she felt, has helped her to respect others more and in turn helped her to self-correct when necessary. For example, Participant C shared that she can be stubborn sometimes. SA, she felt, has helped her to be more accepting of her peer's ideas and thereby making her less stubborn about getting her way.

Participant D appeared somewhat nervous. When asked if she felt nervous or anxious, she confirmed that she was nervous. After some assurance that there were no right or wrong answers to the interview questions and that she would be driving the pace of the session, she shared that she was relieved and appeared to relax a bit. Participant D defined SA as “knowing yourself really well so that you can put yourself in situations where you'll thrive, and you know I won't go into these situations because I'm not successful in these situations.” She described SA a form of self-care. For example, one of the ways Participant D takes care of herself is through reflective practice. She writes in a journal and uses her commute time to reflect. During this practice, Participant D imagines different outcomes for certain situations and how she might approach situations as they arise. This practice, she felt, had a positive effect on teamwork. For example, she felt that paying attention and tuning in to what is going on around her makes her more prepared and flexible, and therefore a better team member.

Participant E arrived on time and appeared excited to start the interview. She defined SA as being conscious of one's behavior and state of mind. When speaking about her own SA, she was very honest: "I'm conscious, but I don't think that I'm anywhere close to being self-aware." She went on to clarify that she is not someone who goes around sharing how self-aware she is, something she has witnessed others doing. SA has become somewhat of a buzzword she felt, and as a result may have lost some of its meaning. We all have limitations in fully seeing ourselves objectively. Eurich (2018) states that it is only by gathering external feedback—similar to a workplace 360-degree review—that we can become more self-aware. Participant E shared that she uses tools such as astrology to increase her SA. Though astrology is considered more of a mystical than empirical science, she felt it gave her insight into herself and others.

Working on teams triggered some anxiety for Participant E. For example, learning how to accept when things do not go a certain way can be challenging and at times frustrating for her. However, she is aware that working on a team also makes her more aware of how she communicates or comes across to others. The process of trying to work successfully on a team has therefore encouraged the development of her SA. Specifically, Participant E said she uses her SA to observe her own and others' behavior, which helps her to monitor how she communicates. For example, while working on a team project, she realized that she was forming questions in the form of statements during a group chat. She felt this might have been due to the fact that she usually is the one on a team that takes initiative. However, upon reflection she became concerned that she was coming across as "mean" or "obnoxious." This awareness helped to adjust how she communicated going forward.

Participant F arrived early and appeared to be very present and focused. She made great eye contact throughout the interview. When asked to define SA, she said it was a state of being

aware and present. One way to do this was through verbalization or speaking out loud. Another was to activate the senses. For example, when she goes for a hike, she uses her senses to become more present by taking in the sights, sounds, smells and visuals of nature: “I don’t think you necessarily realize where you are until you do tune into your senses.” When speaking about her own SA, Participant F shared that asking questions can encourage more awareness. She also thinks her SA helps her to be more strategic and prepared. She likes to imagine the future outcome of a situation.

Participant F welcomes constructive criticism and feels that SA helps her to exchange ideas more effectively and be open to differing points of view. She appeared to understand that feedback, good or bad, is engagement. Being present helps her to work on a team by paying attention; she absorbs all the information she needs. SA helps her to observe when someone may not be as invested on a team project: “I’m super observant. I think I just have an observant quality. So when I see other people not as invested as I am, then I tend to take up the slack of that person.” As a result of this behavior, Participant F felt that she was perceived by her teammates as reliable and trustworthy.

Data from the third and fourth interview questions did not appear to help to answer the primary research question: How do sophomore students at a private college describe SA and how it relates to teamwork? For example, question three asked participants to reflect on a time when SA could have helped them. Answers to this question focused solely on SA not how it relates to teamwork. The fourth interview question asked participants about their experience working on a team project in the past year. Answers to this question were also varied and seemed to answer how participants felt about working on a team rather than how SA relates to it. It is for these reasons that the data analysis presented is from questions one, two, and five only.

## **Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion**

### **Introduction**

Teamwork is an essential 21st-century skill that all college students should learn (Bloemker et al., 2012). EI is a skill that supports effective teamwork (Chen, Donahue, & Klimoski, 2004; Clarke, 2009; Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Druskat, Mount & Sala, 2006; Jordan & Troth, 2004; Jordan, Lawrence & Troth, 2012; Tucker & Yost, 2000). Effective team members possess a high degree of SA (Weisinger, 1998). Team members who possess SA are more resilient, internally motivated, and more capable of controlling their negative emotions, which can have a positive effect on teamwork (Baral, 2017). SA is the primary EI competency that serves as a gateway to the other competencies: self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. The majority of the research only studied EI as a whole, not on any single competency of EI, such as SA. The gap in the literature informed the focus of the case study.

The purpose of the case study was to better understand the experience of college students' SA as a component of EI, and how it relates to teamwork. A single case study was conducted at a small private college in United States. Data collection tools included artifacts, diaries, and one-on-one interviews. Analysis was inductive in nature, and looked for emergent codes and categories, which were then developed into thematic statements (Algozzine & Hancock, 2017). This chapter includes a summary of the findings and how they answer the research questions. A discussion of the findings as they relate to the literature and how they support the conceptual framework is included. The limitations of the study are discussed, as well as implications for future research and practice.

## Summary of the Results

Case study research is grounded in a constructivist paradigm, which claims that truth is relative and is dependent on an individual's perspective or social construction of reality (Creswell, 2013; Yin, 2014). The goal of the study was to provide the participant perspective; therefore, a single case study was chosen with methodological tools that would best help to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: How do sophomore students at a private college describe SA and how it relates to teamwork?

RQ2: How do sophomore students at a private college describe their knowledge and experience of SA ?

RQ3: How do sophomore students at a private college describe their experience of working on a class team project?

Data collection tools included artifacts, diaries, and one-on-one interviews. The first data collected was a PDF of a completed team project that would document and demonstrate participation in a team project from the previous year (2018). Once the PDF was received, participants were emailed diary guidelines, which included five questions for them to answer. Upon receipt of diary content, one-on-one interviews were scheduled, where participants were individually asked a total of five questions.

Data analysis included coding and categorization of data. Categories were incorporated into thematic statements (see Table 3). Findings provided participant descriptions of SA and how it affected their teamwork. For example, SA was described by participants' as self-knowledge, paying attention, and being present and open to feedback from others, and as a competency that develops over time. Participants' felt that collaborating with teammates, asking questions,

brainstorming, time management, and self-reflection encouraged the development of SA.

Participants felt that SA helped them to be more accepting of their teammates' differences and be more open-minded and flexible to the exchange of ideas when collaborating. SA seems to have helped participants be more open to the unexpected, like a teammate not showing up doing their part on a project. Participants felt that SA highlighted the importance of having clear roles on a team.

Findings appear to support Goleman's (2001) framework of EI, which states that SA is the key competency of EI that leads to self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. According to the framework, EI is made up of personal and social competencies that are interdependent and complimentary of one another. The framework defines personal competencies as SA, self-management, social competencies, social awareness, and relationship management (see Figure 1).

Participants appeared to demonstrate how these personal and social competencies work together. The competencies from the framework are noted in parenthesis as they progressed from SA to relationship management. For example, after re-reading some questions that she had sent her team in an online forum, one participant realized that they sounded like statements or demands, not questions. She became concerned that her teammates might feel she was being harsh or mean, which was not her intention, so she re-wrote them. This participant took a moment to reflect on her communication style (SA) and how it might be affecting her teammates (social awareness). Her SA, in combination with her desire to work well with her teammates, was the catalyst to change how she wrote her questions (self- management), with the goal of keeping relations with her teammates positive (relationship management).

Another participant spoke of the importance of being able to compromise. She credited this with helping her to detach from her anger. This helped her to be more flexible and open to her teammates' way of doing things. Becoming a neutral party during discussions helped her work better with others; they felt heard and she stayed less emotionally charged. According to Goleman's framework of EI (2001), internal awareness and management of the self, precedes external awareness and management of others. The implications for effective teamwork appear to be strong: the framework suggests that a person cannot manage their relationships with others without first managing the one with themselves. The process these participants went through appears to demonstrate how EI competencies work together in a harmonious and supportive and somewhat linear fashion. A more detailed discussion of the findings follows in the next section.

## **Discussion of the Results**

Chapter 4 explained in detail the data collection and analysis process. This section will include a discussion of how study findings helped to answer each of the research questions. Some findings also appear to support Goleman's (2001) framework of EI. Examples of how findings explain how the framework works will be shared as well.

RQ1: How do sophomore students at a private college describe SA and how it relates to teamwork?

Participants described SA as emerging through self-talk and physical awareness. For example, one participant described SA as the result of being present. She used her five senses to become more present; through sight, sound, smell, hearing and taste, she could become fully present. She felt this helped her be more aware of herself and others, especially when working on a team. This participant also spoke about verbalizing whether by asking a question of her teammates or just responding to a comment helped to bring her into the present moment.

Findings suggest that SA may encourage a more effective team environment. For example, Participant C felt that SA helped her to identify her weakness, a tendency to be stubborn. At the beginning of a project, she wants to promote what she feels are great ideas, possibly at the ignorance or dismissal of her teammates' ideas. SA, she felt, helped her to step back and "think differently—putting my idea away and trying to see the positives of doing someone else's idea." SA appears to have given her perspective and the patience to listen to others' points of view. This participant had to shift from her perspective to be able to "evaluate other ideas, more objectively than just looking at what I want to do personally." In the framework, SA is defined as emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence. SA appears to have helped this participant not only know herself better, but to then manage herself, which is the next competency in the framework (see Figure 1). Baral (2017) claims that SA positively affects teams. The participant's transformative process was internal and possibly invisible to her teammates, but it was highly supportive of them.

RQ2: How do sophomore students at a private college describe their knowledge and experience of SA?

Findings presented different descriptions and experiences of SA. Participant D said that self-reflection increased her SA. For example, during her commute to and from school, she would reflect upon her day, considering how she might have approached a situation differently or what went well and why. She would also think about what the next day involved and how she might approach possible scenarios. She was using reflection to increase her SA and employing SA to help her strategize for the next day by making connections between her behavior and outcomes. According to Bruno and Dell'Aversana (2017), self-reflection increases



metacognition. Participant D used commuting to self-reflect and strategize about how to deal with the next day's challenges.

Participant A also felt that SA helped her to be more objective about herself and her teammates. For example, during team meetings, she would take a neutral stance in discussions as a way of honoring her teammates' points of view. She was using listening to become more aware of herself and others. She made it clear that this did not mean that she was a doormat, but rather that she waited to consider the view of teammates before sharing her own.

Participant F defined SA as "to be present in the situation." For example, when working on team, she felt it was helpful to speak up and make her voice heard—a way of saying *I am here right now*. The physical and mental sensation caused by speaking encouraged her to be more aware of her situation and in return of herself. There was not a deeper discussion of the mechanism at work, but it appeared that she makes an effort to be present regardless of the situation. Being present by either speaking or tuning into her surroundings, increased her SA. For example, hiking was an activity she enjoyed that she felt encouraged her SA; By tuning into the sights, smells and sounds of nature, she felt more aware. Participant F also spoke about how discussing ideas with her peers seemed to help her recollect those ideas later on. The social act inherent in discussion seemed to affect her memory. Emotional competencies can lead to social competencies (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Mayer & Salovey, 1990). Future research could look at how these competencies affect the retention of memories.

RQ3: How do sophomore students at a private college describe their experience of working on a class team project?

Findings suggest that SA helped participants to be more flexible and responsive to the needs of their teammates. For example, one participant felt SA was making her more socially

aware when working on a team project. When she notices a teammate who was not doing their part on a project, she will step in to pick up the slack. She acknowledged that this may not always be the best method of dealing with a lax teammate, but it seemed to make her teammates trust her more.

According to Brackett (2019), “Feelings are a form of information” that should be acknowledged and understood rather than ignored (p. 17). Participant E shared that working on a team project can make her anxious: “Not social anxiety so much, but in settings where again I have to feel like I’m explaining or doing something that I feel like should be obvious.” Having to deal with peers who may or may not be at her experience level appears to cause some frustration and anxiety. Anxiety is not necessarily a bad emotion; it can provide a heightened focus—a survival mechanism that can ensure our survival (Brackett, 2019).

Participant E also felt that it was important to know her teammates and how they work. Though it can seem like more work than necessary, she was aware that with some people, you could be more direct and with some, you needed to be a bit gentler. Participant E was speaking about being adaptable to work better with her teammates. Adaptability is listed as a competency of self-management (see Figure 1). Self-management leads to relationship-management, which is at the heart of effective teamwork (Jordan, Lawrence, & Troth, 2012).

SA appears to have helped participants to consider how others might react to them and to use this information to make adjustments to their behavior for the good of the team. Participant C was aware that she could be stubborn at times and was trying to consider the viewpoints of her peers more to mitigate this self-described weakness. Participant D was trying to be more open to her peers and be more prepared. Participant E saw the benefit of learning about herself through

team interactions regardless of how challenging they can be. And Participant F tried to observe her peers to remain objective.

Cooperative learning, such as teamwork teaches life skills such as active listening, considering the perspective of others, conflict resolution, and working towards a goal as a team (Likona, 1991). Teamwork involves feedback, which as Participant E shared, can be challenging, but can provide vital feedback about how to proceed or behave in a situation (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). A deeper discussion about how case study findings relate to the literature follows in the next section.

### **Discussion of the Results in Relation to the Theoretical Framework**

The case study was grounded in Goleman's (2001) framework of EI, which breaks EI into four quadrants: SA, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. Each build upon each other in a progressive, interdependent manner (see Figure 1). The focus of the study was the primary competency, SA, and how it relates to teamwork. However, some of the results appear to show how all four components work together. Participant descriptions are shared in the following section.

Participants described their SA and how managing their emotions (self-management) affected how they related to others (social-awareness) and at times influenced or managed them (relationship management). Self-management is an outcome of SA that can lead to social awareness and relationship management (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). For example, Participant C felt that working with a teammate increased her SA. In one example she gave, she and a peer were discussing ideas for a project, and they were both stubbornly sticking to their respective ideas. At some point, they confronted each other about being stubborn, which seemed to allow them to discuss how to incorporate both ideas. She described SA as being able to see yourself

and to adapt your behavior; she tries “to think differently, putting my idea away, and trying to see the positives of doing someone else’s idea.” Participant C appeared to be speaking about being adaptable and flexible to work better with her teammates. Adaptability is a component of self-management according to the framework. Participant C felt that working on a team made her more open-minded and self-aware as well: “The collaborative work that happens here [the study site] has inspired me to be more self-aware.” She spoke about how her social awareness appeared to increase by working on a team: “being part of a creative collaboration here [the study site] has made me realize that, we’re [she and her teammates] all contributing, and it doesn’t always have to be just about me and what I want to do. Getting that feedback, and that interaction with my peers, has been very helpful for me too.” Working on a team, which involves contributing ideas and receiving feedback, seems to have made her more objective and aware of the team as an organization. Social awareness consists of empathy, service orientation, and organizational awareness (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Participant C also seemed to be describing the importance of relationship management: “I actually have to do my part and hand it in, in time to build that trust with my group.” According to the framework, building relationships includes instilling trust and goodwill that can be drawn upon in the future (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001).

Participant D described SA as acknowledging your feelings and using that knowledge to put yourself in situations where you’ll “thrive.” For example, she prefers “challenging environments” and “a little crazy and not typical” environments, so she tries to put herself in situations that challenge her: “I know that I like to learn, and I’m someone who thrives when I’m constantly being challenged and learning.” Self-management flows from SA. Participant D writes in a journal to “really think about myself and really know myself because I think that’ll benefit me in the future.” Participant D shared that she can sometimes let her fears overtake her,

but was using new tools, such as journaling, to manage her emotions and understand herself better. Writing in a diary or journal encourages critical self-reflection (Luca & Tarricone, 2001).

Participant D described herself as intuitive and connected to what she referred to as “the energy of life.” This connectedness resulted in her ability to see events in her personal life and in others more clearly and objectively. Social awareness is defined as the ability to assess a situation objectively (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). In one example shared, Participant D was aware of her parents’ divorce before they told her and, in another example, she was aware that a friend’s parent was addicted to drugs before her friend was. Participant D considers herself to be quite logical when it comes to assessing situations without her emotions interfering. This may have helped her to see things more clearly in the examples she provided. According to the framework of EI, if we are not aware of and able to manage our emotional states and behavior, and if we cannot take an objective view of our situations, our relationships can suffer (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Participant D may have diffused what could have been a difficult conversation with her parents by paying attention and tuning into what was happening around her.

Participant E defined her SA as being conscious of her behavior and how she communicates with others. She uses astrology to help her be more self-aware, because as she put it, “we’re not given tools for self-awareness.” She appeared to be organizationally (socially) aware and shared that working on a team can cause her some anxiety. She appeared to be both aware of her emotional state and what can trigger it. Taking charge while working on a team seems to help her to manage these feelings; a feeling of being in control may have helped mitigate the anxiety caused by teamwork.

Even though Participant E felt she is often the one to take charge, she still wanted to improve how she communicates with team members: “I know that I need to be better at communicating my ideas or collaborating.” Participant E appeared to express social awareness by being aware of how her communication skills were affecting her teammates and relationship management in her desire to improve how she communicates. Social awareness includes empathy, service orientation, and organizational awareness, and relationship management is the ability to tune into and influence the emotions of other people, a competency that supports teamwork (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001).

Participant F equated SA with being present and tuned into situations, which appears to have helped her to be more strategic and prepared: “I like to put myself in the outcome of the situation so that I know if that’s the right step or not to take.” For example, Participant F shared that if she observed early on that a teammate was not doing their part on a project, she would pick up the slack. Participant F shared, “in team projects I always want to reach a standard.” Social awareness is about organizational awareness. Participant F appeared to be aware of what her teammates were doing and had a plan for how to deal with it that aligned with her own standards. According to the framework, trustworthiness and conscientiousness are part of self-management (Goleman, 2001). Picking up the slack when necessary led her teammates, she felt, to trust her more, because they knew they could rely on her. Collaboration, teamwork, and building bonds are competencies of relationship management. Participant F showed leadership in her efforts to ensure project success and to build trust with her teammates in the process.

### **Discussion of the Results in Relation to the Literature**

Results appear to support the claim made by Baral (2017) that the ability to control disruptive emotions can improve teamwork. Participant C shared a moving story about

overcoming powerful emotions in order to achieve her dream of moving to the United States. She had visited the United States once and could not wait to return. Years later, she was accepted to a college in the United States. After a long and tiresome flight, she arrived exhausted, both physically and emotionally. She quickly realized that she had left her entire support system back home and had moved to a country where she did not know anyone. Her first night in the United States was filled anxiety, fear, and regret. She barely slept and questioned her decision to move. Eventually, she got through this difficulty and was able to develop friendships with her peers at school and with her roommates. She credits this experience with increasing her SA; moving forced her to take care of herself. This increased her self-confidence, which is a competency of SA (Goleman, 2001). According to Brackett (2019), “emotion skills are the antecedent of building resilience . . . they can amplify our strengths and help us through challenges” (Brackett, 2019, p. 53). Struggling to achieve her dream meant facing and managing fear and doubt. This experience helped her become aware of strengths she did not know she had.

Baral (2017) defines SA as knowing one’s strengths and weakness. Participants were asked to identify their strengths and weaknesses as part of the diary-writing phase of data collection. Participants used words such as enthusiastic, empathic, logical, adaptable, organized and leadership to describe their strengths. For example, Participant C described her strengths as eager, enthusiastic, and optimistic. She felt that these strengths helped her to remain engaged in her work. Playing sports in the past had helped her to create a sense of “team spirit”—something she tried to create when working on a team project. Participant D felt that strengths were contextual. For example, one of her strengths was logic, which is great when she is trying to solve a math problem, but not when she is trying to see a situation from another person’s point of

view. Participant F described her strengths as organization and leadership; She likes to lead by example, which she hoped might help to minimize the scrutiny or criticism of her teammates.

Participants used words such as fearful, indecisive, judgmental, and needing to be in control to describe their weaknesses. For example, Participant C shared that her greatest weakness is indecisiveness. She tends to analyze and weight the pros and cons of a decision to the point where at times she cannot take action. For instance, she always wants to make the right decision, but because she is can be too cautious, she gets stuck. Participant C felt her other weakness was being too quick to judge people—forming opinions too quickly based on first-impressions. To mitigate this weakness, she tried to take more time to get to know someone. She provided an example of a roommate who was very religious. At first, Participant C had some anxiety and negative thoughts about this, but by taking some time to get to know the roommate, she was able to see there was nothing to worry about; she challenged her initial judgmental thoughts.

Participant D shared that her weakness was allowing fearful thoughts take over. For example, when she is afraid of doing something new, her thoughts run wild with worry. According to Brackett, (2019), negative emotions have a purpose—they help us assess situations in a cautious, but informed manner. They serve as a protective mechanism. Too much fear, however, can prevent us from trying new things in life or taking risks. Participant D shared that in general, she is an optimistic person. She draws on this tendency to be optimistic to overcome her fears. For example, when she is afraid of a new job opportunity, if she gives it some time, her positivity kicks in and reminds her that most things will result in a good outcome.

According to the Theory of Objective Self-Awareness (OSA), “Focusing attention on the self, brought about objective SA, which initiated an automatic comparison of the self against



standards” (Duval & Silvia, 2001, p. 231). Standards are defined as normative behaviors in the theory. Findings suggest that participant SA was a catalyst to improve their team relationships. For example, Participant E described an experience where she became aware of how she was communicating with teammates online. Through her observations of her writing and feedback from her teammates, she was able to self-correct for the good of the team.

An increased focus on the self can also lead to a sense of responsibility for both good and bad outcomes (Duval & Silvia, 2001). Participants shared examples of how SA helped them to take responsibility for their roles as a teammate. Participant F felt that SA helped her to pay more attention to her teammates. For example, she likes to be observant when working with her teammates. Sometimes, she will notice a teammate who seems to not be as invested in a team project as they should be. She did not share any details of what this looked like, however, when she observes this, she usually chooses to pick up the slack, and do more work to compensate. As a result of taking responsibility for getting a project done, she felt her teammates trusted her more.

Team members who are self-aware are more capable of controlling their negative emotions, which has a positive effect on teammates (Baral, 2017). Results appear to support this claim. For example, Participant A spoke of the importance of remaining neutral—or managing her emotions—when working on a team. Her intention, she shared, was to listen better to her teammates before sharing her opinions. Brackett (2019) explains how EI acts as a moderator of emotional states: “It [EI] restores balance to our thought processes; it prevents emotions from having undue influence over our actions; and it helps us to realize that we might be feeling a certain way for a reason” (p. 54). Participant A appeared to manage her emotions for the good of team.

Participant F engaged in personal post-mortems or an internal review of a project so she could improve upon her performance next time. Reviewing a project appeared to help her understand how she reacted to her teammates. The information gleaned from this process, she felt, increased her SA and helped her to manage her emotions on future projects. Participant E tried to manage the anxiety that working on a team triggered by reminding herself that teamwork is a learning experience. Working with others in teams, she felt, could be frustrating at times, but she welcomed to challenge because it helped to grow and become more SA. According to Baral (2017), team members that are self-aware are internally motivated to achieve team success rather than externally motivated for personal gain. Magbool, Manzoor, Sudong, and Rashid (2017), state that SA is highly correlated with project success. Findings appear to suggest that participants' SA helped them make team success a priority.

### **Limitations**

The study results showed support for the literature, which indicated a positive relationship between EI—of which SA is a primary component—and teamwork (Clarke, 2009; Druskat et al., 2006a, 2006b; Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Jordan et al., 2012; Jordan & Troth, 2004; Luca & Tarricone, 2001; Tucker & Yost, 2000). However, results are not generalizable due to the individual nature of the data. Another limitation may be the scale of the study site—a small private college where students are placed in cohorts based on their major. The student body at the study site was small and the sample size reflected this. It is not clear whether a larger sample would have provided more robust data. The cohort as a model can encourage familiarity amongst students. As a consequence of this model, however, study participants knew one another really well and some were close friends, which may have affected the results.

The literature consistently claimed a positive relationship between teamwork and EI (Clarke, 2009; Druskat et al., 2006a, 2006b; Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Jordan et al., 2012; Jordan & Troth, 2004; Luca & Tarricone, 2001; Tucker & Yost, 2000). This may have biased the researcher to expect positive results. The small student body at the study site meant the researcher knew all the participants from previous courses. Therefore, the criterion for the sample was designed to help mitigate bias by requiring that participants not be enrolled in any of the researchers' courses at the time of the study.

Stake (1995) referred to the preselected nature of intrinsic case study samples. For example, the study subject presented itself naturally to the researcher while teaching courses that required students to work in teams. Therefore, the sample size is reflective of the site and representative of this single case study. The study was conducted over a period of six months from the pilot study to final data analysis. A longitudinal study that revisits the case at different time periods to observe how participant views have changed or not may provide more robust data. Longitudinal case studies address the “vulnerability” of single case study results, as they can change over time (Yin, 2014, p. 53).

Another limitation of the study may be that participant SA was not quantitatively measured. Eurich (2017) claims that SA can only be achieved through external feedback—similar to a 360-degree feedback cycle commonly used in the corporate world as part of an employee review. Caruso (2019) warns that knowledge of the self is difficult to achieve; people do not accurately see themselves. Future research that addresses this limitation is discussed in the Recommendations for Further Research section.

## **Implications of the Results for Practice**

Implications for practice may be the way in which college student SA relates to teamwork. Results appear to provide insight into why some students struggle when working on a team. Eurich (2017) states that when we do not know how others perceive us—defined as external SA—our ability to work with others (teamwork) might be weakened. The conceptual framework for the study was informed by the experiences of the researcher as a college professor. A common observation was that when a student on a team does not show up to class or follow through with their work, the other students on that same team wind up compensating by doing more work, which appears to affect team morale. Students who do not show up may lack awareness of how their behavior affects their teammates. Results appear to confirm this. For example, Participant F noted that her willingness to do more than her share to compensate for a teammate who did not show up seemed to build trust with the other teammates. According to Eurich (2017), SA benefits us in our personal and professional choices and leads to higher levels of trust and better connections.

The participants wrote in diaries to encourage their SA. Implications for team-based courses may be the addition of individual diary writing sessions in team-based curriculum to help encourage SA. Hyers (2018) states that for diary entries to be helpful, participants need the capacity to self-reflect. Teaching student how to write in reflective diary entries may be required for certain populations. According to the literature, teamwork is a required skill in the 21st century; therefore, all colleges students should learn how to work effectively on teams (Bloemker et al., 2012). Results suggest that participant SA helped them to manage their emotions and to therefore work better with their teammates. The study design was informed by a

lack of research on the primary component of EI: SA. More research that looks at how SA relates to teamwork may be required to address this gap.

### **Implications of the Results for Policy**

SA supports effective teamwork, which all college students need to be successful in the 21st-century workplace (Jordan, Lawrence, & Troth, 2012). Effective teams consist of members who communicate well and possess a high degree of SA (Eurich, 2017; Weisinger, 1998). Results suggest that team-based courses may benefit from the inclusion of diary writing sessions designed to increase SA.

Diary writing was the first stage of data collection in the study. This allowed participants to first reflect upon their own SA before they were asked to speak about it in one-on-one interviews. Diary questions were designed to increase both internal and external SA (see Appendix A). Eurich (2017) defines internal SA as being able to see oneself accurately, and external SA as being able to accurately assess how others see us. For example, the first questions were focused internally and asked participants about their strengths and weaknesses. The next questions were external and asked participants about their preferred working environments, how they felt their behavior affected their teammates, and about a successful team project within the last calendar year. High internal SA benefits our personal and professional choices and leads to higher levels of trust and better connections (Eurich, 2017). Accurate SA is not assured through self-reflection alone; external feedback or measurement is required. External SA is the ability to accurately assess how others see us. The addition of an EI ability test such as the Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, EI Test (MSCEIT; 2000), taken after diary writing, may also support effective teamwork skills. However, tests such as the MSCEIT are expensive, at over \$100 a person.

Methods such as diary writing could be a good starting point in cases where the MSCEIT is cost-prohibitive.

### **Implications of the Results for Theory**

The study was grounded in Goleman's (2001) framework of EI, which breaks EI into four quadrants that are further broken down and defined by different competencies (see Figure 1). The framework explicates the process in which EI is expressed, as well as the interdependence of each competency. For example, in the framework, self-management is an outcome of SA and is expressed as trustworthiness and conscientiousness. Self-management then leads to social awareness, which is expressed as empathy, service orientation and organizational awareness. Social awareness then leads to relationship management, which is expressed as developing others, influence, and communication (see Figure 1).

Goleman's (2001) framework was chosen to answer the primary research question: How do sophomore students at a private college describe SA and how it relates to teamwork? The framework helped to organize data provided by participants. For example, participants described their SA and how managing their emotions (self-management) affected how they related to others (social-awareness) and at times influenced or managed them (relationship management). The case study was not designed to define or measure participants' EI, but rather gain their point of view on how SA relates to teamwork. Future research could expand on study results by including the MSCEIT to measure participant EI ability. Recommendations are discussed in the next section.

### **Recommendations for Further Research**

Ackley (2106) states that different approaches to EI have resulted in different research outcomes. The study used Goleman's (2001) framework of EI, and results appear to show how

SA relates to teamwork from the participant perspective. However, the addition an EI measurement tool, such as the MSCEIT, could quantify participant SA, possibly further validating their responses. This section will discuss other future research ideas in more detail.

Psychologists in the field of EI have been critical of Goleman’s (1995) theory of EI due to what they claim is a “lack of scientific rigor” because his work was based on less research than Mayer and Salovey’s theories are (Ackley, 2106, p. 270). However, Goleman (1995) had a different goal. He wanted to bring the concept of EI to the masses. For example, the framework of EI was developed as a tool to help improve performance in the workplace (Goleman, 2001). In contrast, Mayer and Salovey (1990) were interested in demonstrating that EI is a true intelligence or a set of skills that relate to general intelligence. For example, the Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso EI Test— (MSCEIT)—was first formulated in 2000 and since revised is used a way to measure EI abilities (see Table 4). The framework refers to competencies and the MSCEIT to abilities (see Table 4).

Table 4

*The Ability Model of EI*

EI ability	Description
1. Perceive Emotions	Accurately identify own and others’ emotions
2. Use Emotions to Facilitate Thought	Generate emotions to solve problems and feel for people
3. Understanding Emotion	Causes of and changes in emotions
4. Managing Emotion	Use emotional awareness to make ideal decisions

*Note.* Adapted from “Self-knowledge is rare: Why people do not accurately estimate their EI and how to provide constructive feedback” a workshop presented by D. Caruso (2019) at The

International Congress on Emotional Intelligence, The University of Notre Dame, Freemantle, Australia.

The MSCEIT might be used to measure participants' SA, providing a more conclusive relationship between SA and teamwork. Use of a test like the MSCEIT may also mitigate the tendency of people to exaggerate their EI (Caruso, 2019). Overestimating ability is explained by the Dunning-Kruger effect: "People tend to be blissfully unaware of their incompetence" (Dunning, Ehrlinger & Johnson, 2003, p. 83). People tend to see themselves more positively than they should, blinding them at times to their weaknesses. Measuring participant SA with a tool such as the MSCEIT might help to mitigate this. The MSCEIT should only be administered by certified trainers for results to be interpreted correctly. Therefore, the researcher would need to become certified on the MSCEIT or have a trainer administer the test to participants. Becoming a MSCEIT trainer is expensive, and so is the test itself. The inclusion of the MSCEIT could significantly increase a study's budget.

The framework for EI explains how EI operates (see Figure 1). For example, on the vertical axis, *self* is referred to as personal competence and is divided into self-awareness and self-management, and *other* is referred to as social competence and divided into social-awareness and relationship management. On the horizontal axis, SA and social-awareness fall under the recognition of emotions, and self-management and relationship management fall under the regulation of emotions.

The framework of EI provides a way to better understand EI and indicates that EI functions in a progressive, interdependent manner, moving outward from the *self* (SA) to *other* (relationship management; see Figure 1). The competencies can be cross-referenced with *recognition* and *regulation*. For example, SA is both an expression of the *self*, demonstrated by



emotional SA, accurate self-assessment, self-confidence, and a *recognition* of the *self*. Self-management is demonstrated by emotional self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, achievement drive and initiative, and *regulation* of oneself. Social awareness is an expression of *other* awareness and is demonstrated by empathy, service orientation, and organizational awareness. Relationship management, also an expression *other* awareness, is demonstrated through developing others, influence, communication, conflict management, visionary leadership, catalyzing change, building bonds, teamwork, and collaboration. Both social awareness and relationship management are functions or outcomes of *regulation* of oneself. A future researcher could examine in greater detail how the framework operates.

Possible research questions could include the following:

1. How do the competencies in Goleman's (2001) framework for EI progress from personal to social? What is the nature of this progression?
2. Why does inner awareness precede outer awareness in the framework?
3. How is the interdependency of the competencies expressed? What is the nature of this interdependency?

### **Conclusion**

In this case study, I sought to better understand how sophomore students at a private college describe SA and how it relates to teamwork? The literature suggests that teamwork is an essential skill that is required in the 21st-century workplace, and that effective teams members possess a high degree of EI (Chen et al., 2004; Clarke, 2009; Druskat et al., 2006a, 2006b; Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Jordan et al., 2012; Jordan & Troth, 2004; Tucker & Yost, 2000; Weisinger, 1998). SA is considered the “meta skill” of the 21st century and is the primary component in Goleman's (2001) framework of EI (Eurich, 2017, p. 57). Most of the research

however, only looked at EI as a whole set of competencies as they relate to teamwork, not on a single component such as SA. The case study sought to address this gap by looking at SA as the primary component of EI as it relates to teamwork.

The study results supported the claims made in the literature. For example, participants described SA as self-knowledge, paying attention, and being present and open to feedback from others. Participants felt that SA can take time to develop, and that collaboration, asking questions, brainstorming, time management, and self-reflection can increase SA. Participants also felt that SA supports effective teamwork by encouraging acceptance of differences, flexibility, the exchange of ideas, role clarification, and communication. These are all skills that can build trust amongst teammates (Eurich, 2017; Kakabadse & Sheard, 2002 & Weisinger, 1998). They are also skills listed in the framework of EI under the competencies of SA, self-management, social-awareness, and relationship management (Goleman, 2001).

Caruso, Lopez, Mayer, and Salovey (2003) stated that assessing EI as a whole without objective input may be risky. Eurich (2017) supported this claim and stated that no one can accurately assess his or her own SA, the primary component of EI, without some form of external, objective feedback. Therefore, a limitation of the study may be that it did not objectively measure participant SA. However, the goal of the study was to gain the participants' perspective not to quantify their SA. For example, participants wrote in diaries, answering prompts designed to encourage SA. The methodology was chosen to meet the goal of putting the participant voice front and center.

The results of the study are not considered generalizable due to the individual nature of the data. However, the results may add to the gap in the literature that looks specifically at SA as a component of EI and how it relates to teamwork. Suggestions for future research include the

addition of an EI measurement test such as the MSCEIT to quantify participant SA. Another suggestion is to look more deeply into how Goleman's (2001) framework of EI functions. Future research could look at how each competency works together to form the set of skills known as EI.

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## **Appendix A: Diary Guidelines**

A diary guideline helps to keep content focused on the research questions. Solicited diaries can provide rich data on a particular subject of study from the participants' perspective (Jacelon & Imperio, 2005). Diary questions were informed by Eurich's (2017) "seven pillars of insight," which seek to increase SA (p. 428).

### **Data Storage and Security**

To ensure confidentiality, participants were assigned a letter that corresponded with their content. Once content was received, it was downloaded to the researcher's password protected computer program for analysis and coding purposes. After the recordings had been transcribed and member-checked, they were deleted from all devices and from any computers or servers.

### **Writing in the Diary**

Five open-ended diary questions were provided to participants. They were encouraged to take their time and to write at least one page for each answer so that they engaged in reflective, critical thinking. Questions were open-ended to encourage insight and deeper thinking. A second round of diary writing may be informed by the first round of interview data analysis, with the goal of obtaining more in-depth answers to the research questions.

### **Diary Questions**

Please write a minimum of one page and maximum of five pages for each of the following questions:

DQ1: What do you feel are your strengths and weaknesses? For example, is there something you feel you excel at or something that you struggle with?

DQ2: What are some of your passions? For example, what makes you excited to start the day?

DQ3: Can you describe a defining moment in your life? How did this shape you into the person you are today?

Teamwork:

DQ4: Can you tell me what your ideal environment is? For example, what kind of environment do you feel you perform your best in?

DQ54: Can you reflect on how your behavior may have affected your peers in the past week; how did people react or respond to you?

DQ6: Can you share an experience in detail of a successful team project you have worked on? What do you feel made it a success?

## **Appendix B: Interview Questions**

### **Introductory:**

In this interview, I will be asking you some questions about your experience of SA.

IQ1: Can you tell me what your definition of SA is?

b. Could you clarify what you mean when you say \_\_\_\_\_?

c. Can you tell me more about that?

d. Can you describe that in more detail; do you have any examples you would like to share?

IQ2: Can you tell me about your SA?

b. Could you clarify what you mean when you say \_\_\_\_\_?

c. Can you tell me more about that?

d. Can you describe that in more detail; do you have any examples you would like to share?

IQ3: Can you describe an experience when SA could have helped you?

b. Could you clarify what you mean when you say \_\_\_\_\_?

c. Can you tell me more about that?

d. Can you describe that in more detail; do you have any examples you would like to share?

### **Redirect:**

Now I would like to ask some questions about your experience of working on a class team project within the last year.

IQ4: Can you tell me about your experience of working on a class team project in the last year?

- a. Could you clarify what you mean when you say \_\_\_\_\_?
- b. Am I correct that your experience of working on a quarter-long team project was \_\_\_\_\_?
- c. Can you tell me more about that?
- d. Can you describe that in more detail; do you have any examples you would like to share?

Concluding:

Now I would like to ask some final questions about how you feel SA affects working on a class team project?

IQ5: How do you feel your SA affects how you work on a class team project?

- a. Could you clarify what you mean when you say \_\_\_\_\_?
- b. Am I correct that your SA affects how you function in a team in this way \_\_\_\_\_?
- c. Can you tell me more about that?
- d. Can you describe that in more detail; do you have any examples you would like to share?

## **Appendix C: Statement of Original Work**

The Concordia University Doctorate of Education Program is a collaborative community of scholar-practitioners, who seek to transform society by pursuing ethically-informed, rigorously researched, inquiry-based projects that benefit professional, institutional, and local educational contexts. Each member of the community affirms throughout their program of study adherence to the principles and standards outlined in the Concordia University Academic Integrity Policy. This policy states the following:

Statement of academic integrity.

As a member of the Concordia University community, I will neither engage in fraudulent or unauthorized behaviors in the presentation and completion of my work, nor will I provide unauthorized assistance to others.

### **Explanations:**

What does “fraudulent” mean?

“Fraudulent” work is any material submitted for evaluation that is falsely or improperly presented as one’s own. This includes, but is not limited to texts, graphics and other multi-media files appropriated from any source, including another individual, that are intentionally presented as all or part of a candidate’s final work without full and complete documentation.

What is “unauthorized” assistance?

“Unauthorized assistance” refers to any support candidates solicit in the completion of their work, that has not been either explicitly specified as appropriate by the instructor, or any assistance that is understood in the class context as inappropriate. This can include, but is not limited to:

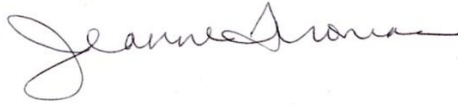
- Use of unauthorized notes or another’s work during an online test
- Use of unauthorized notes or personal assistance in an online exam setting
- Inappropriate collaboration in preparation and/or completion of a project
- Unauthorized solicitation of professional resources for the completion of the work.



Statement of Original Work (Continued)

I attest that:

1. I have read, understood, and complied with all aspects of the Concordia University–Portland Academic Integrity Policy during the development and writing of this dissertation.
2. Where information and/or materials from outside sources has been used in the production of this dissertation, all information and/or materials from outside sources has been properly referenced and all permissions required for use of the information and/or materials have been obtained, in accordance with research standards outlined in the *Publication Manual of The American Psychological Association*.



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Digital Signature

Jeanne Thomas

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Name (Typed)

December 13, 2019

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Date